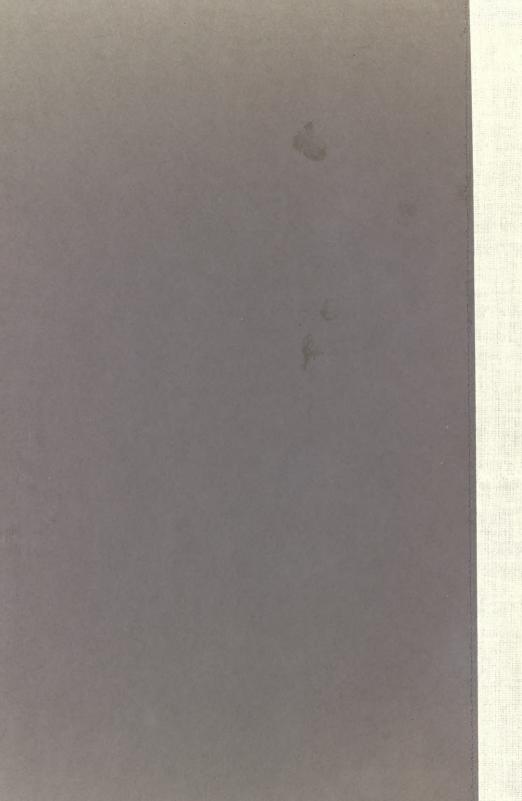
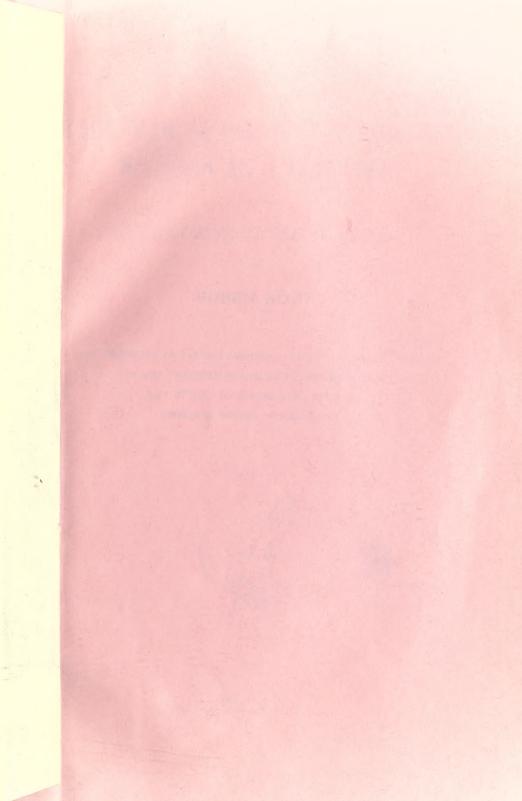


Nojd, Ruben
The vocalism of Romanic
words in Chaucer

PR 1945 N6 1919







THE VOCALISM OF ROMANIC WORDS IN CHAUCER

INAUGURAL DISSERTATION

BY

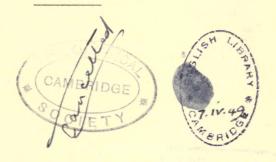
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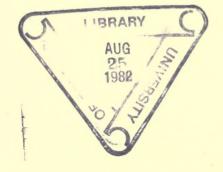
MAY 27th, AT 10 O'CLOCK A. M., FOR THE

DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY



UPPSALA 1919
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Preface.

The present work was originally planned to comprise the whole of Chaucer's phonology. After the publication of F. Wild's excellent book on Chaucer's language a good deal of my preparatory researches proved unnecessary. Dealing almost exclusively with the poet's native word-treasure, Wild's work, however, calls for a complementary study, as far as the Romanic part is concerned. So I decided to make an attempt at a more detailed and systematic investigation into this part of Chaucer's vocabulary. Since, after tenBrink and Wild, there was little more to be said about the consonants, I confined my study to the vocalism. In arranging my material I found it more practical and from a Modern English point of view more profitable, to devote a separate part of the work to such questions as had a bearing upon the subject as a whole. Thus, for instance, it was more convenient to deal with combinatory soundchanges once for all than to take up the same question for each vowel separately. Occasionally, the problems dealt with led to a discussion of some questions of principle that had an intimate bearing upon Chaucer's language or on ME in general. Of course comparisons with ModE were often inevitable.

For the study of the Canterbury Tales, which have afforded the material for the larger part of these researches, I have used the Ellesmere MS, with continual attention, however, also to the other MSS of the Six-Text Edition. The other works have been studied chiefly in Skeat's edition. Following Skeat, I have consistently printed v where the MSS have u for this consonant.

My interest in Chaucer dates back to the time when I had the pleasant advantage of studying English philology at Upsala under the late Prof. Erik Björkman's guidance. His premature death means a heavy loss, not only to English philology in general, but also to the large number of students who have learned to appreciate his unusual ability as a teacher and his attractive personal qualities. For many valuable hints that I received in the course of my work and for the warm interest he always took in my English studies, I shall always remain thankful.

The work was continued at Yale University, New Haven, where I had the privilege of studying the year 1916—17 as a Fellow on the American-Scandinavian Foundation, taking part in several courses, preeminently those of Prof. A. S. Cook. To him and my other American teachers I am indebted for much useful instruction and personal kindness.

My thanks are also extended to the officials at the Libraries of Upsala, New Haven, and Gothenburg for their ready assistance in finding the literature required.

Finally, I am under a great debt of gratitude to Dr G. E. Fuhrken, who was kind enough to revise the proofs while they were passing through the press.

May, 1919.

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Abbreviations.

Such abbreviations as are in common use and easy to identify will not be given here. — See also the list of works consulted.

The poet's works are referred to as follows:

A 123, B 123 etc. = The Canterbury Tales (CT).

HF = The House of Fame.

LGW = The Legend of Good Women.

I 123, III 123, etc. = Troilus and Criseyde.

1, 123; 2, 121, etc. = Minor Poems.

The sign (<), as on p. 54: date (< dare), means only that a word is related to that given in brackets, not developed from this word, which is indicated simply by <.

Contents.

	Part I.	
Chapte		Page
I.	Rime as a Criterion in Chaucer	3
II.	Stress and Metre in Chaucer	5
III.	Stress of Prefixed Words in Chaucer	10
IV.	Anglo-French	21
V.	Adaptation of the French Loans to the Native Pho-	
	nology	23
VI.	Vocalic Quantity in Open Syllables	24
VII.	Vocalic Quantity before an OE lengthening Consonant-	
	group	35
VIII.	Vocalic Quantity before dz, tf	41
IX.	Spelling-pronunciation in Chaucer	47
	Part II.	
Stresse	ed Vowels and Diphthongs 51-	-131
	Part III.	
I.	Quantity and Quality of Unstressed Vowels	135
II.	Prefixes	136
III.	Aphæresis	139
IV.	Unstressed Vowels in Medial Position	142
V.	Suffixes	148
VI.	Apocopation	149
	Part IV.	
Vocali	sm of Proper Names	155
Inday		163



PART I



I. Rime as a Criterion in Chaucer.

To the investigator of ME phonology two resources are open: spelling and versification. Which of the two gives us the best information naturally depends upon the conscientiousness of the scribe and the poet concerned. The Chaucer student has the advantage of gaining valuable results from both sources, inasmuch as the best of the MSS presents a consistency in spelling comparable with the poet's own regularity in riming. The MS underlying the greater part of these researches, the Ellesmere MS of the Canterbury Tales, was written about 1420, by a scribe whose dialect was apparently nearly identical with the poet's (See Koch, Introduction, 8). The difference that is nevertheless ascertainable between their languages can easily be accounted for by the changes that arose in the London dialect during the lapse of the half century or so that separated the date of the composition of the CT from that of the MS. In that period the population of the capital was rapidly increasing through a steady immigration from the surrounding counties, and chiefly from the Midlands. This gradually brought about an admixture of Midland dialect features that is much more clearly manifest in the scribe's dialect than in Chaucer's. The difference was no doubt more important than will appear at first sight, for we find that the deviations and inconsistencies in the Ell. MS are comparatively few, evidently owing to the scribe's faithful copying of his text.

A scribe who takes particular care in copying the rimes exactly and who almost infallibly gives identical forms for a word whether it occurs in rimes or elsewhere, is entitled to credence to the exclusion of the numerous other MSS,



most of which abound in inconsistencies and mistakes. Even the best MS of Troilus and Criseyde, the Campsall MS of c. 1413, leaves much to be desired in point of accuracy, and the MSS of the Minor Poems as a rule present a most bewildering confusion. The only MS to be exploited with safety is therefore our Ell. MS.

Not less important is a study of the rimes, which may be consulted for any rime-word of sufficient frequency. The rare occurrence of bad rimes warrants a high degree of reliability even for words which are less frequent in rime, although in such cases the possibility of an emergency rime must not be overlooked.

Chaucer's superiority as a rimer is due to his independence of previous tradition in English prosody. It is an evident and natural fact that, whilst poets of a later period were more or less unable to detach themselves from the influence of their predecessors, preeminently Chaucer, he himself was not subject to any such traditional rimes. which make conclusions so hazardous for the vocalism of a later stage of the language 1. Ch. was a pioneer in English poetry and made his own rimes. - On the other hand, he was not quite free from French influence, which is not surprising in view of his early familiarity with French poetry. Thus he may be indebted to French models for the inaccurate stressing of polysyllabic or dissyllabic 2 words on the final syllable, as in B 4088 prisoun: down, which, again, led to the erroneous lengthening of the second vowel in prisoun, where the analogy of monosyllables like soun (sound), with regular length, tempted the poet to an occasional departure from his natural pronunciation. This was a kind of poetical spelling-pronunciation (Ch. IX). But

¹ See Gabrielson, 6 ff.

² I include among monosyllables words containing an additional -e (es-, -ed), since for our purposes the types G 969 precf: theef and G 905 blame: name are practically identical. At all events, no other dissyllables with natural stress on the initial syllable can occur in Ch.'s rimes. E 2117 cliket: wiket (clicket; wicket) is quite an exceptional type of rime.

even without French influence the poet would certainly have taken the same liberty, since, but for that expedient, he would have been unable to use words of more than one syllable in his rimes, save for the limited number of words of the type given in the foot-note of page 4.

In fact, the circumstance just referred to implies a great disadvantage and restricts the criterion of rime to monosyllabic words. As far as the native vocabulary is concerned, no such obstacle arises, since the native words correspond exactly to the rime-types in Ch., that is they contain — except for compounds and words in -e/l, m, n, r; -ow; -y — only one syllable, which may be followed or not by an inflectional ending. It is otherwise in the Romanic vocabulary, which, with the exception of monosyllables, can be used in rime only by a poetic licence. There is, indeed, no possibility of determining the quantity of the first vowel in *prisoun* by means of Ch.'s rimes. That question must be solved otherwise. See Chapter VI.

II. Stress and Metre in Chaucer.

In the preceding chapter the second syllable of prisoun was given a short vowel, because the stress fell on the first syllable. The accentuation is indeed the decisive factor in dealing with the quantity of vowels, and the stress usage in Ch. has to be accurately ascertained before a classification of the vocalism can be made.

We shall find that the Germanic tendency was prevalent in Ch.'s Romanic vocabulary, and it is immaterial in this connexion whether the initial stress had gradually replaced the French stress that is commonly supposed to have existed in the early ME loan-words, or if the native stress tendencies were immediately applied to the fresh loans, which seems to me a more reasonable process. Of course I am referring here only to popular words, for it is self-evident that among educated people the French stress was widely patronised, although in most cases without

enduring results. It seems rather a matter of course that the native speakers, who were familiar with suffixes like -dom, -el, -hood, -ing, -ship, should withdraw the stress also from the endings of French loans like chapel, malice, prisoun, honour, precious, etc. Such words were so frequent that their endings were instinctively treated in the same way as the native suffixes, i. e. pronounced without strong stress. Now a vast majority of the polysyllabic loan-words contained a more or less common suffix, so initial stress may a priori be held to have gained ground even among the first words borrowed. This was one case of the adaptation that will be further illustrated below. On the other hand, it is obvious that the emphatic stressing which in NE caused a considerable qualitative change of weak-stressed vowels had not set in as yet in Ch.'s period. Rimes like F 513 ypocryte: byte (hypocrite, bite), C 515 table: mesurable show that the difference could not have been of a qualitative nature. The present way of emphasizing the strongstressed syllable at the expense of the others is probably to be traced back to a period not much later then Ch.'s, giving as its immediate result the loss of final -e, which was still generally preserved in Ch. See Part III.

Let us now consider to what extent Ch.'s metre is conclusive with regard to the accentuation, and what results may be gained by a metrical investigation. The value of metre as a criterion has been very much overestimated. I will adduce a few typical cases where false conclusions can easily be drawn and where great precaution is necessary in the study of the metrical structure of Ch.'s verse.

Everybody who in reading Ch.'s poetry tries to observe a strictly iambic rhythm $(-\acute{-}-\acute{-}-\acute{-}-\acute{-}-\acute{-})$ will often come across irregular lines: sometimes a syllable has to be added, sometimes removed. In one line a word requires a stress quite different from that in another line. 'Emendations' often fail to give the line a satisfactory appearance from the point of view of stress. A glance at Skeat's Glossary gives the impression that many words could be

stressed in more ways than one 1. It is clear, for instance, from a statistical research — and of course a distinct majority is always necessary to determine the stress — that honour was Ch.'s natural stress, as is also admitted by Skeat for a line like

A 582 In hónour dettelees, but he were wood, but he gives honóur for

A 46 Trouth and honour, fredom and curteisye in spite of the awkward and unnatural stressing of and and of -dom that would inevitably follow a strict observation of the iambic metre.

How is such a line to be read? I want to call attention first to the very common poetical license in Ch. which may be called initial inversion, as in

B 4389 Fourty degrées and oon, and more, ywis, that is, the first syllable of the line could be stressed instead of the second. It seems as though this inversion was occasionally extended further as in

B 3859 Ealse fórtune, and póison to despyse, and I do not hesitate to assume that in A 46 we have to do with the same kind of inversion extended over the greater part of the line, which ought to be read

A 46 Trouth and honour, frédom and curteisye.

Generally speaking, there was a possibility of letting the line begin in a falling rhythm and then, sooner or later, swing over to the regular iambic system of the decasyllable, - | - | becoming - | - |.

This kind of inversion, which is by no means infrequent, was naturally a very appropriate means of emphasizing a word at the head of the line. Chaucer was a poet,

¹ I do not refer here to his erroneous method of determining the stress of some words simply by their position in rime. Thus he stresses F 659 batáilles: mervailles, where the final stress was only artificial (p. 4), whereas the natural stress bátailles is evident from

A 61 At mortal batailles hadde he been fifteene.

and not a verse-maker whose only ambition was a metrically perfect line. The stress therefore cannot be made out with certainty from the first word of a line. Equally irrelevant is a rime-word. Judging by the metre in

D 1129 Prowesse of man, for god, of his goodnesse we ought to pronounce prowesse and goodnesse, of which the latter is admittedly wrong and the former, too, ought to have initial stress, since -esse, like -nesse, was unstressed in Ch., as is easily ascertained from the metre. But there are other metrical peculiarities still to take into account. Let us take

G 1343 Ne nightingale | in the sesoun of May

Skeat gives four instances of sésoun, and only one (G 1343) of sesoún, F 1034 being irrelevant as a rime-word. There ought to be no doubt then that sésoun, which is the normal stress in Ch.'s verse, represented his actual pronunciation. Is G 1343 an exception? In my opinion, it is as unnecessary, or even impossible, to read sesoun in the above line as to read, say, gladdér, swerýng in

G 1342 Was never bridd | gladder agayn the day C 633 The heighe god forbad | sweryng at all

It is clear from these instances that the decasyllable occasionally permitted a final inversion, resulting in the type --|--|, which was not rare at the head of a line. Of course it is quite possible that in Ch.'s time educated people who knew French preferred to read sesoún, but here we are concerned with the natural pronunciation of the day.

We have found that the study of stress in Ch. labours under the difficulty of many limitations as regards the conclusiveness of metre for the accentuation. Nevertheless, the considerable majority of lines, where a natural reading coincides with the normal metre of the decasyllable, justifies the conclusion that the Germanic accentuation was prevalent, as might, indeed, be expected in view of the Germanic stress tendencies that had influenced the French loan-words from their earliest appearance in English (p. 6).

Our conclusions are built primarily upon words of two syllables, for trisyllabic words could take stress on either the first or the last syllable without changing the rhythm. It cannot be assumed, however, that trisyllabic words should have final stress, if dissyllabic words had not. So we place it on the first syllable, and, following our earlier argument, we may safely assume that the originally strong-stressed final syllable of the French word received only a secondary stress in the Englishman's pronunciation, whereas the initial syllable got a strong stress. In English ——— became ——— by a very natural transposition.

Even in words of more than three syllables the antepenult as a rule received the stress. In words of five syllables we have no metrical criterion for stress, for the reason given above in the mention of the trisyllables, but in words of four syllables the stress evidently fell on the antepenult, as appears from lines like

C 404 And no thyng for correctionn of synne

If a word of four syllables could not have initial stress, it seems even more impossible for still longer words to take stress on the first syllable. In fact, the stress on the antepenult is phonologically natural. Let us consider the process of the assimilation of a word like AF possibilité. If the English speaker had followed the native stress tendencies, he would have pronounced this word possibilitee, as he said possible. But the leap was evidently too big, and in his conscious or unconscious attempt at final stress he took the intermediate course and put the stress on the antepenult.

¹ For practical purposes I do not count final -e as a special syllable.

III. Stress of Prefixed Words in Chaucer.

In words containing a prefix the native stress tendency was not carried through consistently, owing to special influences. This is the place to take a closer view of this interesting problem, as far as it can be illustrated by the poet's metre.

The material I have collected for this purpose contains a sufficiently large number of instances of words with common prefixes to allow of conclusions as to the general state of things on this point. None of these instances are initial words or rimes, since a word in either of those positions, and especially in a rime, is suspect and does not necessarily render the actual stress (p. 8). — On the other hand, it should be pointed out in passing that, generally speaking, the stress of a word in those inconclusive lines, too, does agree metrically with what has been ascertained to be the actual stress of that word. This only shows that as a rule the poet observed the metrical system of the decasyllable.

The irrelevancy of words in initial and final position will be shown by a couple of examples.

E 1480 Conseil to axe of any that is here G 353 Parfit in his lerninge, goddes knight

Of course these lines cannot be adduced to prove final stress for *conseil* and *parfit*. A vast majority of instances testify to initial stress in these words, and in these lines too we must lay the stress on the first syllable, which is not infrequently the case in Ch.'s poetry. In G 353 we might also count with the possibility of an omitted first half-foot, which is preferable with regard to the natural way of pronouncing *lérning(e)*.— For final -e in polysyllables, see below (Part III).

It is true that the initial inversion could also be extended beyond the first foot, as in

B 3811 In this *meschief* he wayled and eek wepte where the natural stress of *meschief* (p. 16) is attained only

by inversion. All the difficulties discussed in the last chapter have to be considered here, too. Thus lines where the respective words occur as rimes are irrelevant, because here the metrical stress invariably came to rest on the final syllable — not counting -e.

B 888 enquerynge (: sprynge). Cp. V 1538 enquére.

II 838 ententyf (: stryf). Cp. I 332 enténtyf.

D 881 dishonour (: Arthour). Cp. V 1066 dishonour.

In words containing more than three syllables we must here too assume that the stress consistently fell on the antepenult, as in C 471 By superfluitee abhóminable. Cp. the contrasting stresses in A 484 advérsitee — II 1435 ádversarie.

Thus the following survey does not contain words of more than three syllables. To be able to determine the stress tendencies I have found it suitable to keep apart the dissyllabic verbs from other dissyllabic words, since these verb were almost invariably end-stressed. As to the trisyllabic verbs with an unstressed medial syllable, the metre of course cannot decide whether we have initial or final stress. For the bulk of trisyllabic words we have assumed initial stress (p. 9), but with regard to the exceptional stress in verbs of two syllables, we may safely conclude final stress also for the trisyllabic verbs of the above type.

It may also be interesting to observe if the position in checked and unchecked syllables has been of importance for the accentuation, so these two groups are here kept apart as regards the nouns and adjectives.

¹ The suffix -arie, as well as -orie, had an unstressed -ie in AF (CF -aire, -oire), so adversarie was practically parallel to a trisyllabic word with an -e added. Like suffixes in general -arie was unstressed. Noteworthy, however, is the frequent contrárie (p. 21).

	Dissyllables		Trisyl	lables
Nou	1 n s ¹	Verbs	Initial	Medial
Unchecked	Checked	, 62.55		11204444
accord B 4069	åbsence V 1396 åbsent 7, 93 7, 138	accórde G 638 LGW 2027	áccident E 607 III 918 IV 1505	accórdant A 37 A 3363 B 4026
afféctes III 1391	accéss ² II 1543 affráy 4, 214 7, 334	affråyed B 563 B 4468 3,296 agrée I 409	ádvertence IV 698	accúsour III 1450 agréable 18, 68
allý G 297		allýe C 613		alliaunce B 3523
anóy B 1320		anóye B 3979		
		apése III 22	ápparence F 218 F 1157	apprówour D 1343 (steward)
		aquéynte HF 250	appetit (or appetit?) B 3390	aquéyntance D 1342 D 1991
aráy 4,176 5, 219	aspéct ² A 1087 II 682	araye B 252 F 1187		
		ascénde		ascéndent B 302
assáyes E 697 LGW 9		assáye D 286		
		avåle A 3122 (to doff)		atténdance D 933
			áventure A 25 C 934 D 1224 F 659	avantage F 772 G 731
avaúnt III 289		avaúnte III 318 (to boast)		aváuntour B 4107 II 724 III 308 III 314
	cómfort G 32 1, 77 5, 170	confórte E 1918 I 249 V 234		
		commande E 533		
cómmune ³ A 2509 B 155 E 431		commune F 693 G 982		

¹ Under this heading I also place adjectives. — Words with a different stress in ModE are italicized.

² Of these two the former still may have end-stress and the latter appears with end-stress as late as early NE. See Metzger, 56, 71.

 $^{^3}$ F 107 — — as to commune entente is an instance of metrical attraction, so common at the end of a line. The rising stress in the

	Dissyllables		Trisyl	lables
No	uns	Verbs	Initial	Medial
Unchecked	Checked	Veros	IIIII	Mediai
	cómpas G 45 4, 137 HF 1302	compásse LGW 1414 LGW 1543	cómpaignye A 2311	
	cómplet ¹ B 4379 V 828	compléyne A 908 B 4539 C 239 C 241		
	cómpleynt A 2862 E 1881 F 948 2, 43	conclúde A 1358 F 1422		
	concéit (concep- tion) G 1214 I 996 III 804 LGW 1764	concéive B 3675		
	cóncorde E 1129	confésse F 494	cónfessour D 2239 D 2260 D 2265	
	cónduit LGW 852	confóunde G 137 1, 5		
	cónfus A 2230 G 463 IV 356	conjúre II 1733 III 193		
	cónquest LGW 1676 LGW 1298	conquére B 542 7, 37 LGW 585		
	cónseil A 1141 A 1147 A 3504 B 425		cónsistorie IV 65	considere A 3088 F 675
	cónstant E 1047			
	cónstance E 1000			
	cónstreynt II 776	constréyne E 800 F 764 F 769	cóntenance F 1485 LGW 1738	continue 7, 6
	cóntract D 1306			
	cónvers V 1810	convérte I 999 I 1004		

rime-word was given by way of anticipation also to the preceding word. No conclusions can be drawn from such lines (p. 8). Cp. profred in

G 1066 Ful sooth it is that swich profred servyse.

E 1893 The fourthe day compleet fro noon to noon where compleet may be interpreted in its original verbal sense.

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ That was the normal stress of the word also in early NE. See Metzger, 58. — But

	Dissyllable	s	Trisy	llables
N o	uns	Verbs	Initial	Medial
Unchecked	Checked	Verus	imuai	Mediai
debát 3, 1192 defáute B 3718 C 370 D 1810 delit A 335 B 1135 B 3340		defámed C 415 defét(exhausted) V 618 V 1219		delibere IV 169 IV 211
desért (merit) 4, 31		desérve LGW 1624	désolat 7, 62 déstinee A 2323 III 734 IV 969	depárdieux B 39 II 1058 désirous II 1101
	discláundre ¹ IV 564 discórd E 432	disclándre LGW 1031	111104 17 000	discórdaunt
	discréet B 4061 E 410 III 943 disdáyn II 1217	discússe 5, 624		II 1037 discóvere E 1942 G 696
	,	disése (to disturb) III 1468		dishérited LGW 1065
	despéyr LGW 2557	despéyre F 943		dishónest E 876
		dispúte III 858 3, 505		dishónour V 1066
	despýt D 2061 LGW 1822			despitous(ly) A 1596 A 1777 A 4274 B 605
divérs B 211 D 286 I 61		destóurbe C340 distróye LGW 1318	diligent I 957	dissimule I 322 III 434 V 1613
	emprýse (enter- prise) B 348			

As to the interchange of des-, dis-, see Part III.

	Dissyllables	;	Trisyl	lables	
No	uns	Verbs	Initial	Medial	
Unchecked	Checked	VCIDS	Intua	Mediai	
	encéns A 2429	encénse G 395		enchéson (occasion) F 456	
	encrées A 275 A 2184 B 237 IV 1257	encrésse A 1315 B 1271 E 50			
	engýn G 339 II 565	engéndre A 4			
	ensámple A 496 A 505 A 520	enséled V 151		enlúmined 1,73	
	enténte B 147 D 192 E 189			enténtyf I 332 HF 1120	
	éntree II 77				
	énvye 3, 173	énvye (?) D 142¹ envýe (to vie) 3, 406	énvyous B 365 III 1700	envýous II 666, 857 envóluped (wrapped up) C 942	
		imprésse III 1543	importable E 1144		
			impossible D 2231 I 783 III 525	inmórtal I 103	
,		infécte H 39 LGW 2242			
			infernal LGW 1886 V 368	dig ci	
			influence E1968 HI618		
			infortune A 2021 B 3591 III 1625		
			innocence II 1048		
			innocent B 618 B1756 II1723		

¹ I nil nat envye no virginitee. Skeat omits nat, which gives a different stress. His suggestion may be true, however, in view of the fact that this verb seems to have had final stress in early NE, as it has still in some dialects (NED). The double negation was not rare in Ch.: C 383, 555, etc. — Cp. also the adj.

	Dissyllable	s	Trisy	llables	
	uns	Verbs	Initial	Medial	
Unchecked	Checked				
	eschäunge A 278 excúse 7, 305 expért¹ (adj.)	expóunde B 1725	intellect A 2803 G 339 éxcellent C 39 E 1987 éxecute ² A 1664 III 622 éxercyse B 4029 éxpulsif A 2749 páramour II 236 párdoner C 318	misáunter I 766	
preamble (learned word) D 831 précept D 65					
préface G 271 présent LGW 1935 E 470 5, 423		presúme E 1503	préscience IV 987 IV 998 IV 1011		

 $^{^1}$ As a noun this word is not instanced before 1825 in NED. In ModE the adjective too has often initial stress. Cp. I 67 $\acute{e}xpert.$

 $^{^{3}}$ As to the spellings mes-, mis-, see Part III.

⁴ In II 460, 1, 19 In my (thy) presence we have evidently another case of initial inversion.

]	Dissyllables	Trisyl	lables	
Not	nns	Verbs	Initial	Medial
Unchecked	Checked	V 0233	IIICIGI	Mediai
próces B 3511 F 658 F 1345 LGW 1553	próblem D 2219			
prófit A 249 9, 26		pronóunce C 335		
próvost B 1806	púrpos I 5, 79 I 379	purpóse IV 1350		
	púrsuit II 959 II 1744			
rébel A 833 A 3046 16, 23		recórde LGW 1760 recóvere I 383 III 181 B 27 (see p. 18 n. 1)	rècomaunde ¹ B 278 V 1323 rècoménde ¹ G 544	
réfut (refuge) B 546 B 852 G 75 1, 33		refús (refused) I 570 relésse B 3367	rémedie A 1216 A 3525 V 61 rémenaunt ² 5, 271	
rélykes A 701 LGW 321 I 153	repréve C 595 D 16 E 2204	repénte 4, 17 repréve LGW 1566		
	requést 10, 76	requére D 1010 E 430 4, 155		
	réscous A 2643 I 478	rescowe (to rescue) LWG 515		
	respýt 8 G 543 5, 648	respýte ³ F 1582	rétenue A 2502 E 270	
cével A 4402 C 65 E 392			révelous B 1194	
evers B 4167 D 2056 14, 6			réverence III 40	
eward II 1133 V 1736 LGW 1622				

 $^{^{1}}$ In these verbs containing a double prefix the stress on re- could only be secondary.

² As a rule the metre requires only a dissyllabic value for this word (A 2277 etc.).

³ ModE has [réspit] for the verb as well as the noun.

² Ruben Nöjd

	Dissyllables	S	Trisyl	lables
No	u n s	Verbs	Initial	Medial
Unchecked	Checked	VCLUS	1111111111	Hediai
Unchecked	súbget (subject) E 482 I 231 II 828 V 1790 súbstaunce C 539 IV 217 IV 1505 súbtil C 141 5, 272 LGW 672 súffraunce F 788 súffraunt IV 1584 3, 1010	submitted B 35	súccessour E 138 súffisaunce 3, 1031 10, 15 súffisaunt E 960	
	súspect¹ (suspi- cion) C 263 E 905		sústenance LGW 2041	
	súrname 6, 31	surmóunte III 1038		
	súrplus IV 60			

The accentuation of prefixed words evidently points to the influence of a great many conflicting tendencies.

In one case, however, the process is clear: the verbs generally had an unstressed prefix ². For *envye*, see pp. 15, 20, for *execute* (p. 16).

¹ E 541 suspect is an adj. and may have preserved its original character of a past participle. Cp. complect (E 1893).

² Some lines point to the possibility of initial stress for a few words with con-, although the material is too scanty to allow of any definite conclusions. Compare, however, the vacillating stress in ModE conjure (now with a difference in meaning), construe (earlier also conster).

<sup>F 1422 I wol conclude that it is bet for me
A 3067 What may I conclude of this longe serie
II 1733 Nece, I conjure and heighly you defende
B 1834 This yonge child to coniure he began
III 33 Whan they can not construe how it may io
B 1718 This preyde he him to construe and declare</sup>

As to the dissyllabic nouns and adjectives, we have to distinguish between one group containing prefixes that were preeminently found in verbs and analogically preserved their unstressed character in other words as well and another group in which the normal initial stress was preserved either because the verbs with the prefix in question did not outnumber the other words with the same prefix or because words with a certain prefix were not frequent enough for analogical influences to operate in either direction. — Prefixes of the former type, chiefly found in verbs, were a-, de-, di(s)-, en- (em-), ex- (es-), re-; of the latter type, quite as frequent or more so in other words, were con- (com-), par- (per-), pre-, pro- (pur-), sub-, sur-.

To illustrate the relative frequency of these prefixes I will give some approximate figures on the question. The works examined are Troilus, and as prose texts the Tale of Melibeus and the Parson's Tale. It must also be borne in mind that words of more than three syllables were important too, since in these the prefix was always unstressed (p. 11).

-	_			1	,	-	1	71		11					. [1			
	Verb	Polys.	Noun	Verb	Polys.	Noun	Verb	Polys. (s)	Noun	Verb	Polys.	Noun (Verb	Polys.	Noun	Verb	Polys.	Noun	Work
	63 78 117	5 21 20	18		12 18 7	9	49		9 20 63 ¹	38 32 57	3	13 28 55 ¹	26 24 32	5 22 5	8 15 28	73	4 5 5		Tale of Mel. Tale of Parson Troilus
ı	258			215	-		130			127		99	82			209			Tionus
	3	04	55	2	52	40	1	70	92	1	40	96	1.	14	51	22	23	26	Total

¹ In some cases the suitability of a word for a rime made it more frequent in poetry than elsewhere. Such is the case with *distresse*, *entente*, *suffise* and others.



co	n-(co	m-)	pa	r-(pe	er-)		pre-		pre	o-(pt	ır-)	sub-			
Verb	Polys.	Noun	Verb	Polys.	Noun	Verb	Polys.	Noun	Verb	Polys.	Noun	Verb	Polys.	Noun	Work
86	91 1	01	9	4	2		6	5	10	7	23 18	7	6	3	Tale of Parson
208	139	32	15	3 11	5	1	9	6	19 39	5 14	32	25	7 15	6	Troilus
1	347	154	2	6	13	1	.0	13	5	3	73	56	3	17	Total

It is apparently immaterial, as far as Ch.'s accentuation is concerned, whether the vowel of the prefix stood in a checked or an unchecked syllable.

The exceptions to the main rule which may be derived from this roughly calculated survey of the frequence of the different prefixes are due to other counter-acting influences. Thus certain endings that were generally unstressed in other words account for an abnormal stressing of the first syllable, even when it was a prefix. In ábsent and absence we easily observe the influence of the contrasting présent, présence and there were a great number of other words with the same endings (prúdent, prúdence, etc.)3. — The initial stress in éntree, énvye was probably due to the analogy of the common suffixes -ee, -ie. — The suffixes -el, -ic were generally unstressed, so there is nothing surprising about rébel, rével, rélyk. — Révers was perhaps due to the frequency of al the revers, noght the revers with al, nought emphatically stressed. A similar rhythmical influence may account for réscous often occurring in the expression for (in) the rescous of 4. — On the other hand

¹ Strikingly frequent in the Parson's Tale are confession, contricion.

² See p. 19 Note.

³ In such a way we must also explain the initial stress in ModE distant (not found in Ch.'s poetry). As a rule dis- and -ant were both unstressed, and then the stress naturally fell on the first syllable.

⁴ Lines beginning with At request of (A 1819), At regard of (5.58) have to be read with a double initial inversion. Metrically interesting is also

IV 86 Right no resport to respect of your ese.

concéit may be due to the regular decéit, recéit, or possibly to concéive. — With regard to contrarie the stress was vacillating, as it was still in early NE: A 3057, C 595, 2, 64 cóntrarie — A 1859, B 4470, I 418, 637, 645, etc. contrárie. The verb of course had a stressless prefix: D 1044, E 1497, F 705 contrárie.

Words in mes- soon got their prefix mixed up with the unstressed native mis-. Only in mischief was initial stress victorious.

The trisyllabic words had a tendency towards initial stress, and it appears that if no disturbing influence was at work, the prefix of a trisyllable (if not a verb) was stressed. This tendency was so strong that even some words where the influence of a related verb seems inevitable had initial stress — at least in Ch.'s poetry. Especially noticeable is the stress on in (-im) in the trisyllables, which seems to have been carried through rather consistently. This is easily accounted for by the fact that the other words with in— for which we find regularly the French en—were too few to counterbalance the initial stress tendency of the trisyllables. — The vacillating stress in envyous points to a vacillating stress of envye, at least as a verb (cp. p. 15 Note).

IV. Anglo-French.

The manifold dialectal contributions to the French language in England after the Conquest make it hard to decide where the French loan-words in ME really originated. By using the term Anglo-French the dialectal origin of the several words is rather concealed than revealed, since the AF jargon, a melting-pot of Northern French, Central F and even English traits, had never time to develop into a homogeneous language before it was supplanted by the vernacular. It is true that the general appearance of AF presents chiefly Northern French peculiarities, distinct from the corresponding CF forms, but even these Northern in-

gredients are hard to analyse without making mistakes as to the Norman, Picardian, Walloon, or other influences. I have therefore used the term AF generically for all sources, except those of undisputable CF origin — as oi for ei, although there is no denying the fact that even such words could or did pass through AF before reaching ME. The CF influence, however, appears chiefly in words of late importation, many of which seem to have been imported by Ch, himself.

The Latin element deserves our attention inasmuch as one is often liable to make mistakes as to the Latin or French origin for a word. The fact that a word is not instanced in the OF texts does not necessarily preclude French mediation. In any case, even the words whose Latin origin may be considered certain were almost consistently adapted to the phonology of the French loans. The vocalism of the Romanic loan-words in general presents a uniformity which may be traced back to one source: AF.

In default of any safe criterion, it may be appropriate to determine the Latin or French origin of a word by chronological considerations, assuming a Latin source if the word is instanced earlier in ME than in OF. From this point of view it is not admissible to follow Remus in his etymologies of impudence, -ent, (p. 81), insolence, -ent (p. 82), imprudent (p. 101) etc., which are not given in French (Hatzf.-D) before the 15th and 16th c. Nor can I realize the advantage of assuming different origins for the noun and the related adjective, as he does in the case of impudence < 'afrz. impudence', but impudent < 'afrz. impudent oder lat. impudent-', etc.

A good survey of the Latin element in ME in general is given by Dellit, who, however, seems to overestimate the Latin influence on ME, and whose criteria are often delusive. So he rejects (p. 12) a Latin origin for consume because of the vowel, whereas in fact any word with L u was pronounced in the same way as OF ü in ME (Comp. E 1812 coitu (L): eschu 'averse'). In this case French origin is nevertheless preferable, because the word appears in OF

as early as the 12th c. As for the Latin element in Ch., we find only a small number of words where Latin origin is undisputable. I leave out of consideration such of his works as were adoptations of Latin works, such as the Astrolabe, based on a Latin treatise by Messahala, or mere translations, such as Boece, in which Latin influence was more or less inevitable. Even the Italian *Philostrato* probably prompted the borrowing of Latin words for the composition of Troilus and Criseyde.

V. Adaptation of the French Loans to the Native Phonology.

The gradual assimilation of the French vocabulary to the native stock of words was accompanied by an adaptation of the new words to the native sounds. If it is most likely that the French stress was immediately replaced by English stress in the vernacular, there is no doubt that the French sounds were replaced by their English equivalents, even if these did not have exactly the same phonetical value. Thus the vowel in ME $declare < AF \ declar(er)$ was naturally given the same value as the vowel in the native $f\bar{a}re$, $sp\bar{a}re$, etc., no matter if the native speaker perceived a difference in the pronunciation of the two languages or not.

Nevertheless, we find instances of attempts at transferring the foreign sound itself. Such a process took place if the native language did not contain any suitable equivalent for a sound or a sound-group. Thus it is clear that, but for the invasion of French words into ME, Modern English would not present the combinations [\bar{e}^{ist}], [aist], [aust], [$\bar{a}nt$], [aunt], the ME equivalents of which were $\bar{a}st$, $\bar{i}st$, $\bar{u}st$, $\bar{u}nt$, which groups did not exist in the ver-

¹ Frieshammer also gives too much prominence to Latin sources. Of the first 20 words quoted (p. 67) I have found more than half in OF.

nacular. It is seen at once that the lengthening before st or n/consonant did not include all vowels. This question will be discussed below for each vowel separately. It should only be pointed out here that the lengthening before st must have taken place already in AF (see Part II: a, e) and that the groups $\bar{e}st^1$, $\bar{e}st$ occurred in native words too.

Chaucer's rimes are naturally not conclusive for the vowels in these groups, since all the rimes bearing upon this question were self-rimes. But length is none the less undeniable, being presupposed by the later development, for we cannot possibly assume that, if a group like $\check{a}st$ or $\check{u}nt$ had ever occurred in the French loans, a lengthening of such groups would take place in late ME, and only in borrowed words. In several cases the spelling contributes to prove long vowels. Thus ou is invariably written to denote the length of \bar{u} before n/consonant, and au is chiefly written for \bar{a} in the same position. See, further, Part II: \bar{a} , \bar{u} .

There were a few more phonetical novelties peculiar to the new loans. There were new diphthongs: iu as the equivalent of AF \ddot{u} ; oi; ui. As to the consonants, we should point out the appearance of initial dz, v, z, — as in jalous, vain, zele (zeal) — of which the two last sounds could have been familiar only in a few ME dialects. Cp. the present dialectal pronunciation in isolated parts of the South.

VI. Vocalic Quantity in Open Syllables.

What quantity did the borrowed words receive in their new environment? This question offers many difficult points.

As far as analogous conditions prevailed, an adaptation

¹ In the vernacular ĕst was more common, which accounts for the dubious quantity in many words of French origin containing this group. As lengthening was regular in est in spite of the majority of native ĕst, we may assume that before st a consistent lengthening had taken place in the earliest loans.

took place here as well, and for monosyllabic words that process is easy to follow. A couple of rimes will illustrate the point.

cave: knave B 498 maat(dejected): debaat 2 B 130

cleere: heere A 169 preef: theef G 969 enclyne: myne B 3091 divyn: wyn B 3245 suppose: nose D 785 cloos: toos B 4521

doute: aboute D 1711 soun (sound): doun D 973

These typical examples instantly show that the monosyllables were phonetically adapted to the corresponding types in the vernacular, and it should be noticed that here a single final consonant did not shorten the vowel, which happened invariably in the closed syllables of polysyllabics. The length of the vowel in monosyllables was due to the fact that in choosing a substitute for the French combination short vowel + short consonant there were two possibilities: short vowel + long consonant or long vowel + short consonant, of which the latter combination was preferred on account of the frequency of the inflected forms, which naturally favoured long quantity.

It is fruitless to discuss the question whether the result of lengthening in the open syllables of monosyllables was perfectly identical with the length in a close syllable, that is whether, for example, the vowels in cave and maat were identical. One might be tempted to assume that accurate identity was reached only after the disappearance of -e, but for our purposes such a distinction is superfluous. It is remarkable, however, that Ch. has hardly any rimes of \bar{e} in a loan-word with $\bar{e} < OE \ e$ in open syllable.

I will now examine words of more than one syllable, and begin with words of the trisyllabic type. — From the present point of view it is suitable to divide the polysyllables into two groups: the dissyllables and the rest.

¹ Here too I do not count final -e, as a special syllable. An unstressed prefix is negligible too.

 $^{^2}$ A selfrime, since no native words containing $\tilde{a}/cons.$ existed in ME. OE \tilde{a} had become $\bar{\varrho}.$

That the polysyllabic words, apart from the dissyllables, follow the development of the trisyllabic type with regard to the vocalism of the stressed syllable, is not surprising in view of the parallelism of these two groups in point of stress (p. 9).

It has already been pointed out by Luick, Anglia 30, 1 ff., that short quantity was typical for the open stressed syllables of trisyllabic words. Thus Ch. must have had short vowel, for example, in the following words.

 \check{a} in A 1990 ádamant; B 3741 cápitain; E 817 compárisoun.

 \check{e} in A 1996 félonye; IV 1014 necéssiteé; B 3670 sénatour.

ŏ in A 587, B 4145, F 51 cólerik; B 3908 hónestee; V 1494 próphesye.

The short quantity of the stressed vowels in these words is not verified for Ch. either by rimes or by any conclusive spellings. But when we are in a position to ascertain the stress of the words and when we know that the ModE vowel-system in general is based upon the ME quantities, we need not hesitate to assume that the trisyllabic type, which now — with the exception of a few definite cases — consistently shows a short vowel, had the same short quantity also in Ch.

With the dissyllables the case is different. Luick assumes long quantity as normal for this type. It is hard to decide what should be considered the normal development for a group that contains so many hitherto unclassified exceptions. Length is true of the monosyllables, short quantity of the trisyllabic type, and the dissyllables were divided between both, according to principles that will now be set forth. I will first give a number of examples in illustration. — The ME equivalent of AF \ddot{u} will be treated separately. — Where the stress seems doubtful, the line quoted will be given in a foot-note.

 $^{^{1}}$ Monosyllables + e being counted as monosyllables, as has been done above.

mětal D 1064, 4, 201, 9, 29

tábard A 20 clárree 1 (claret) A 1471

cătel A 373, B 27, 4017 C 594 chápel A 171 věssel B 3338, 3416, 3418

pătent sb. A 315

lĕgende² A 314

báner (banner) A 966, 976
2410, 7, 30
cóler (collar) A 3239³, V 811, 1660
máner (manner) A 71, B 519, 1689, 3951, C 627

hốnest A 246, C 328, E 3334, E 2028, H 75

ábbey B 4044⁵ áley (alley) B 1758, E 2324 főlye (folly) F 1002, 3,610 glőrie A 2239 sérye (argument) < AF serie < L séries A 3067 tárie (to tarry) A 3409

măgik A 416, F 1125, 1202 lŏgik A 286 rĕlik A 701, LGW 321

věnym (venom) LWG 2593

sătin B 137, 3, 253

hábit A 1378 méryt IV 9657

bắcoun B 4035, D 217, 418 cấpoun C 856, D 1839, LGW 1389

fávour B 3914, 5, 626 8 lábour IV 422, 1, 106 lávour (laver, basin) D 287 lēchour (lecher) D 767 (p. 44) rásour (razor) A 2417, B 3246 sávour G 887, II 269, 5, 274 tábour D 2268

² The ModE vacillation points back to ME \check{e} and \check{e} , of which the latter, if it existed, was a spelling-pron. (p. 48).

⁸ And eek bihinde, on hir coler aboute

¹ rr = r. Gemination in polysyllables did not exist, as is clear from the inconsistent use of single and double consonants. Generally the French spelling was preserved. Cp. vessel, abbey. See also p. 29 (bottom).

^{• 4} And wondred hem | in how honest manere. — Here metrical attraction was at work.

⁵ Than is a clocke, or an abbey or logge Cp. Notes 1, 4.

⁶ Riming with merye (merry).

⁷ In hir mérytes sothly for to be

⁸ Most MSS have: Than wol I doon this favour to hir that she, which gives favour its natural stress and is, therefore, preferable to Skeat's reading: Than wol I doon hir this favour that she.

trémour V 255 vápour F 393

> mésure ² (measure) E 256 náture 5, 617, 629, 668, 676

It can hardly be ascribed to a mere chance that the lengthening of the stressed vowels in dissyllables took place only before endings of a certain type. It seems to be a matter of fact that length was favoured by a following u or iu, the latter being the ME representative of AF ii (see p. 33). How is such a lengthening to be explained? Could not a somewhat parallel development be looked for in the old u-umlaut, although a diphthongization like the OE was counteracted by the analogy of the general lengthening of a-, e-, o- in words ending in -e(n) (nāme, māke, etc.)? By analogy, too, no such lengthening affected i-, u-. Phonetically a lengthening of this kind is not unlikely. The process was simply an anticipation of the following back vowel, resulting in a gradual lengthening of a preceding heterogeneous vowel. Naturally no lengthening arose in a preceding back vowel, since in that case both vowels were of the same nature and no disturbing influence came in. Therefore ō in F 913 ódour should rather be put down as a spelling-pronunciation. In words of later adoption, when -oun, -our, etc. had been reduced to an, aa, and, consequently a back vowel no longer existed, the lengthening naturally could not take place, if indeed a tendency towards lengthening existed at that time at all.

Of course a final velar syllable could not very well extend its influence beyond the preceding vowel, that is the stressed vowels of the trisyllabic type remained short, according to the general rule (p. 26). — Examples:

¹ ModE tremor has short vowel. The original length may be reflected in the occasional length mentioned in the CD.

² I have not been able to find the word elsewhere than in rimes, but, like other words in -ure, it must have had initial stress. Here a shortening took place later on, but ea points back to earlier length, still given by Gill (1621).

ămorous A 2861, LGW 1189 senatour B 3670, 4561 compárisoun E 817 őrisoun (prayer) A 2261

trégetour (juggler) HF 1277 vénimous B 4345, 1, 149

Nor was length secured by the back vowel in the penult of a trisyllabic word. Such a syllable was only weak-stressed and did not modify the quality of the preceding stressed vowel. Accordingly, we have no lengthening in

félonye (crime) A 1996

Iălousye (jealousy) A 3294

In fact, the trisyllabic type was not subject to any influence of the neighbouring syllables, except in the case of the penult being a hiatus-i, as in B 3544 légioun. See helow.

The rule given above for the lengthening of the stressed vowel in certain dissyllabic words presents some sporadic exceptions, which probably existed even in Ch.'s period. A short vowel no doubt was found in G 1435 drågoun, where a seems surprising. But were there at that time any cases whatever of \bar{a}/q ? — H 24 găloun (gallon) chiefly occurred connected with a stressed noun, as it was here a gáloun wýn — where the secondary stress on -oun was apt to disappear and u could weaken to o or even drop, as was likely if the regular of was inserted before the noun. - A 709 lessoun very likely represents a spellingpronunciation, or, as seems natural in view of its use as a church and school term, an imitation of French, which had a short vowel. Luick, Anglia 30,15, suggests that the French ts in lecon caused the shortening in ME. 'Dies ts ergab in ME ss, d. i. langes s, welches auf die beiden silben verteilt, also zur geminata werden konnte.' Now it is well known that as a rule this ts did not give a long s in ME: chāce, trāce, etc. Moreover, gemination in other than monosyllabic words (with or without -e) did not exist Between message = me/sage and co/rage the only in ME. difference in this respect is one of spelling, the etymological

ss being preserved in message also as an expression of the unvoiced s. Compare $m\acute{a}(n)$ nere, $s\acute{u}(m)$ mer, where nn, mm were normalized later on. As to lesson, the early ME (Ancr. Ri.) spelling was lescun, where the French c was retained, but being inaccurate as the sign of s in this position, it was improved by the insertion of an s. Now sc often interchanged with ss, and in lesson this ss gave rise to a short preceding vowel.

On the other hand, an unexpected lengthening has sometimes taken place, owing to analogy or to spelling-pronunciation.

dőtage A 3898 nátal III 150 nátyf¹ (native) I 102 rė̃gals (royal attributes) LGW 2128

In $d\bar{o}tage$ the corresponding verb had evidently caused a lengthening.

The length in $n\bar{a}tal$, $n\bar{a}tyf$ is easily explained as due to the influence of $n\bar{a}cioun$, $n\bar{a}ture$. In a word like $r\bar{e}gals$ spelling-pron. is quite plausible, and then the vowel was \bar{e} (not \bar{e}).

It is more than doubtful, however, if i had length, for instance, in

final LGW 2101, I 682 libel D 1595 licence D 855 tyraunt A 961, B 3727, F 1368

For further discussion of this question, see Part II: i.

To me it does not seem admissible to assume, as is done by Luick, Anglia 30,20, that the lengthening in question affected all the vowels. He gives prisoun, citee, etc. as the early ME type, assuming that the shortening here was of a later date. To begin with, it is not intelligible why such a partial shortening should take place at a later period. As to an early ME prīsūn, it could have

¹ So aungellyk was hir natyf beautee seems to favour final stress for natyf, but -if was generally unstressed, and we have to do in this line only with an attraction of the rime-word, which here had an artificial stress. Such lines are not rare. See p. 27, Notes 4, 5.

existed only if the word had level stress, in which case the two syllables would have been treated like two separate words, resulting in $pr\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{u}n$. But such a stress did not agree with the native tendencies of accentuation. See, above, page 6. On the other hand, it seems a natural phonetical law that the open strong-stressed syllable of a dissyllabic word had its vowel pronounced short, except in the case where a velar syllable followed, or — and this second exception will now be treated — if the stressed vowel itself was in hiatus.

As the rule of length in hiatus-vowels applies also to words of the trisyllabic type, there is no reason to keep the two types apart in this respect. Examples:

géaunt (giant) B 3298, V 838, pietee III 1033 5, 344 riot A 4392 léoun (lion) A 1598, B 3106, violence IV 562 D 692

Length in this case was the natural result of an attempt carefully to avoid a fusion of the two adjacent vowels. Thus we have to do here with the same phenomenon as has lead to the differentiation of $\delta \partial$, $\delta \tilde{\imath}$ for the definite article, according to the character of the initial sound of the next word. It should be observed, too, that the result of this kind of lengthening is not the same as that of the regular lengthening in open syllable, inasmuch as this lengthening of e^1 evidently did not give \bar{e} , but \bar{e} . This must be connected with the undeniable fact that a vowel is more 'distinct' as it comes nearer to the high-front position. Moreover, the alphabetical value of e must have been \bar{e} (p. 49).

This is the place to examine another case of lengthening in trisyllabics. We find length in the open stressed vowel of a trisyllabic word, if the penult was a hiatus-i. — Examples:

ámiable A 138 légiouns² B 3544 mésure E 256 (p. 28) nāciouns A 53

¹ I have found no instance of o in this position.

² If the vowel was \bar{e} , the word had a spelling-pronounciation.

náture 5, 617 ódious D 2190 pácience (patience) 4, 40 státut¹ (ā?) A 327, D 198, 893 státure¹ (ā?) A 83, 3, 828 váriaunt (variant) G 1175

This kind of lengthening has a different character from that of a hiatus-vowel. Here again, as in the case of the normal lengthening in open syllable, e and o appear as open vowels, and here, too, i could not receive length2. The exact character of this lengthening is not easy to ascertain. An important factor, however, must be looked for in a condition which seems to have been intimately connected with this lengthening, namely that the following syllable had a strong secondary stress. If not, we get a short vowel as in A 15 specially, which no doubt, as was suggested by Luick, Anglia 30,43, accounts for the irregular short vowel in the corresponding adjective, specially being more frequent than special. Another example is found in the differentation nature - natureel. - Noteworthy in this respect are also statue, value?. — We have also to mention the numerous words ending in -rie (p. 27). From a strictly metrical point of view -rie is to be counted as one syllable, which makes it likely that a word like glorie was pronounced either glörje or glorje, the latter being perhaps preferable with regard to the later development, if we do not assume a series glorije > glorije > glorij > glori. For the NE length, see Part II: o.

It is evident that this -e, the equivalent of an AF final-e, or — as in marie (to marry) — the stressless verbal

¹ These words may have had the ME length expected. But in view of their learned character it is tempting to assume a later date for a settled pronunciation of these words, and the ModE vowel here no doubt goes back to a time when the secondary stress on the prefix had already disappeared.

² Luick, Anglia 30,44, is of the opinion that here, too, i originally existed in ME, but that the palatal consonant of the following syllable (e. g. opinioun) made a diphthongization of the stressed i impossible. He takes this case to be parallel with the preservation of monophthongal i before dz tf (e. g. early NE oblige, NE screech).

⁸ A 975 státuc, B 1361 válue. Here a triphthong iue arose, which naturally became iue, so that the secondary stress on u was given up.

ending, had a considerably weaker stress than the endings found in the list of trisyllabic words given above. — The analogy of marie prevented length in mariage (E 1470).

The history of a word like $n\acute{a}ture$ is sufficient to prove the diphthongal pronunciation of u. Suppose, for a moment, that this letter meant \ddot{u} in ME. What would have been the fate of the a of the preceding syllable? Evidently \breve{a} , since \ddot{u} is not a vowel of the kind that favoured lengthening of the preceding vowel (see p. 32). On the other hand, if there was a diphthong iu, we have to do with a case analogous to that of nacioun.

Examples of words containing iu < AF u:

fúneral (adj.) A 2912 fútur G 875, V 748 humílitee E 1184 músik B 4483 náture 5, 617, 629, 668, 676 rúmour V 53 úsage C 899, LGW 2337, 5,15 úsure D 1309

A glance at the ModE phonology of these words will tell us that the substitution of iu for AF \ddot{u} — in stressed or unstressed syllables — was determined only by one condition: that of unchecked position. Compare, for instance, the v of study < ME studie, where ie had the same effect as in carie (to carry), etc. (p. 32). In other words, before a consonant group — to which type ie practically belonged — AF ii was reproduced by ME ii; in other cases by ME iu.

As to the development of this sound, Luick, Anglia 30,45, writes: 'Im 15. jahrhundert, wenn nicht früher, ist sicher schon vielfach iu für das ursprüngliche \bar{u} gesprochen worden, obwohl daneben \bar{u} sich noch bis ins neuenglische hielt; der eintritt dieses diphthongs hat nun m. e. die sonst sich vollziehende kürzung verhindert, zunächst allerdings nur bei dem teil der sprachgenossen, der iu sprach'.

A double pronunciation was no doubt possible, but it is most unlikely that the monophthong prevailed to such an extent that a real competition began between the two 3 Ruben Nöid.

sounds. In that case it is impossible that the diphthong should have ousted the monophthong in some of the words quoted by Luick (p. 44, l. c.), because these words were chiefly literary or learned and were therefore pronounced almost exclusively by the classes who knew French and who tried to preserve the monophthong. It is clear that in was chosen directly in early ME as the most appropriate substitute for the unfamiliar French ü, which sound was familiar only to a very narrow circle of English dialects. To the native population as a whole the adoption of the foreign vowel presented insurmountable difficulties, and it is noteworthy that as a rule such AF sounds as were unfamiliar to the English were replaced by substitutes of one kind or another (p. 26). For additional remarks on in, see Part II: \tilde{u} , in.

We may thus safely assume that Ch. had the diphthong in this case. This does not preclude the possibility that in reading Ch.'s *poetry* preference was given to a refined pronunciation in accordance with French. We have already (p. 5) spoken of the same refined tendency in point of stress.

The history of the vowels followed by a muta cum liquida + e is practically identical with that of vowels in open syllables. Hence it seems necessary to refer this group to the last syllable in cases like

stāble A 167

bīble A 437

nōble A 60

trouble E 465

ēgle (eagle) A 2178

peple (people) C 260 sowple (supple) B 3690 title B 3512

foudre: poudre (lightning; powder) HF 535

ēgre (eager) E 1199

tīgre A 1657

Before a labial (trouble, supple) \bar{u} was apt to be shortened, but this shortening probably took place after the loss of -e, when these words were levelled with words in -el, which had invariably short quantity (chapel, etc.).

The development of B 2046 sugre (sugar), G 1402

lucre — the latter of which, however, may be called a learned word — also shows that gr, er belonged to the next syllable, since in closed syllables French \ddot{u} became ME \ddot{u} , not iu (p. 33).

In peple, egle, egre the length may also be explained as the result of monophthongization (see p. 71), but in any case these words make it evident that the groups in question did not produce shortening of the preceding vowel.

VII. Vocalic Quantity before an OE Lengthening Consonant-group.

This problem is made rather complicated by the fact that among the borrowed words only a limited number of instances existed where we find a parallelism with the native combinations in question. Thus, for instance, a group vowel /ld was a priori out of the question, since in French l had been vocalized before another consonant. Further, the group nd, although preceded by a long \bar{a} and \bar{u} in French words, cannot be said to have caused length in ME in the same way as in OE, for we also find these vowels influenced in the same way by a following nt. Here the length then was not due to the group itself, but to an attempt to reproduce the French nasal vowel.

ME length seems to have existed also in the groups \bar{u}/rs , \bar{u}/rt judging by the ModE pronunciation of course, court². Consequently we may safely assume length in A 140 court, E 49 cours: sours (course; source), although rimes of this type could not find a native group to be judged by,

¹ LGW 2199 wīlde: begÿlde (wild; beguiled) is irrelevant, since in the latter word ld was not from French. The vowel was naturally long in the imperfect as well as in the infinitive. — In A 3225 $cokew\bar{\varrho}ld$: $\bar{\varrho}ld$ (cuckold; old) we have evidently to do with an adaptation to the native -wold, whose vowel was unstressed and short, but was artificially lengthened to $\bar{\varrho}$ so as to rime with $\bar{\varrho}ld$.

² We are here concerned only with the monosyllabic type. Compare *courtesy*. — Only the group u/n + cons. could take length even in polysyllables (Part II: \bar{u}).

since the corresponding native group had an originally short vowel, which could not be lengthened. The ME length in the borrowed words containing u/r + consonant must be ascribed to a qualitative difference between the AF u and its English equivalent. This difference no doubt consisted in the more tense pronunciation of the French u, which then came nearer to the quality of the ME long \bar{u} , and this vowel was therefore chosen as the most appropriate substitute for the foreign sound. It should be noted that even to-day the quality of long and short u in French, — as in court, courte — is practically identical.

Although therefore the vocalism of the French vowels cannot be said to have been influenced as a whole by a consonant group that had caused length in OE, a collection of the material bearing upon this question may throw light upon the whole problem.

a/nd We are here concerned only with A 1930 gerland: hand.

It should be pointed out at once that rimes between a French and a native and were impossible, since Ch. had always $\bar{\varrho}nd$ in native words. It should also be borne in mind that a/n + any cons. resulted in a long vowel so that the length in the and of French loan-words, as in G 430 demānde (question), cannot be said to have been due to the lengthening group nd.

The rime in question, to be considered correct, must be read *gerlond*: hond, as many MSS have it. Nor was -lond an unusual spelling for this word in ME texts, no matter if the form was due to a change of a to o in unstressed syllable, corresponding to that of -wald < -wold in OE, or if we have to do with a popular transformation of -land to -lond.

¹ Cp. Morsbach, Gr. § 90: 'Daneben öfters der a-laut, der besonders in einigen bestimmten Wörtern häufig wiederkehrt: hand, land, standen, gange(n), hang, lang, wrang, welche mit den entsprechenden Orrm'schen Kürzen auffallend übereinstimmen'. It is true that the Ell. MS favours a in hand, hange, but it has o in the other words, and the rimes do not give these two words an exceptional place.

e/nd We find a good many rimes here:

IV 891 comprehende: entende: sende, inf.

I 2 descended: ended

E 392 descende: spende (pret. of OE spendan)

LGW 472 legende: spende, inf., etc.

With regard to end, it is first noteworthy that the vernacular had done away with the length in OE ēnd¹, as is shown, for instance, by rimes like IV 702 spende, inf. < OE spēndan: brende, pret. of brennan. It seems, therefore, uncertain whether the short vowel in the French end was due merely to sound-substitution or had come into existence independently of the native group. As in some dialects, however, — for example Robert of Gloucester's² — the French end had given a short vowel, as against the retained length in the native group, it may be safe to assume that native influence had not been at work here. Even if Ch.'s dialect had preserved length in the native ēnd, the French loans with end were numerous enough to take their own course.

u/nd B 362 confounde: ybounde (to confound; bound) 3, 925 facound: found (eloquent; found)

These instance do not necessarily presuppose a lengthening, since the spelling (ou) — as well as the later development — presupposes length also before *nt*, as in

B 3589 acounte: viscounte (to account; viscount)

a/rd C 201 awarde < AF awarder = OF esgarder < Gic *warda, sb : warde

This is a most remarkable rime. OE -eard had given -erd in Ch.'s language, so it is doubtful if the last rimeword really is of native origin. Surprising is therefore also the a in hard (: HF 118 Leonard).

As to hard, Wild, 102, ascribes a to the possible

¹ OE ēond, however, resulted in ME ēnd, as in feend, freend. This fact seems to justify the conclusion that the length in OE ēnd was given up before the monophthongization of eo.

² See Eilers, p. 151.

influence of OF hardi. Such an influence seems, to say the least, unlikely for that kind of word. — On better grounds we might assume French influence — perhaps French etymology — for ward. This word was evidently chiefly used as a legal term, in which case the etymology of the word can appropriately be traced back to AF ward = CF guarde. On this supposition the above rime is a self-rime, and gives no clue to the quantity of the vowel?

o/rd The only native words riming with French words in ord were lord, word, as in

A 837, 3081 etc. lord: accord 3, 306 word: accord D 2049, 2117 ~: record 3, 934 ~: record

These rimes make Eilers, 129, believe that lord had ŏ, and that word — which also rimes with A 4405 hoord (hoard) — had 'Doppelformen', i. e. long as well as short vowel. He thus takes it for granted that when ord was of French origin, the vowel was ŏ, whereas native ord had ō, except in rimes with French loan-words.

This argument seems somewhat peculiar. If these rimes are correct it is evident that the group ord had the same value in native as well as in borrowed words. We find no other way of explaining the fact that lord (< OE hlāford) rimes with word (< OE word, E 1487, etc.) as well as with accord and other loan-words in -ord. It is obvious that a levelling had taken place. Most likely this was the result of a general shortening before rd³. It must not be taken for granted, however, that this short quantity existed in Ch.'s language. The occasional spellings oord in the

¹ Possibly influence may be expected from such native forms as heardra, heardesta, early ME hardly, hardnen (< Scand. hardna). It should be noted that even Orrm, who was comparatively free from French loan-words, had harrd, but a in other words: ard, flard.

² A 2185 *leopard*: part, sh. in all probability is changed from *leopart*, which seems to have been a rather popular corruption in ME. See NED.

³ ModE [weed] points to ME \check{u} , due to a change wo > wu, which cannot be ascertained for Ch.'s dialect. The ModE form must be traced back to another ME dialect. (The same is true of *sword*, for which Ch. has *sword* (: berd B 4547). See also Gabrielson, Influence of W, 220, 221.

MSS shows that a lengthening had taken place, at least in the dialects of the scribes concerned, and even for the poet himself the possibility of a secondary lengthening in this group cannot be dismissed.

u/rd The only rime is H 82 bourde: gourde (jest; gourd)
This rime tells us nothing about the general tendency
of u/rd. The spelling ou, which was simply transmitted
from OF, at best shows that the vowel was pronounced ū
by spelling-pronunciation. The words were both too uncommon to be considered typical representatives of u/rd.
The ModE pronunciation of gourd wavers, according to NED,
between [gūəɪd] and [gōəɪd]. To all appearance ū prevailed
in these words in Ch. — Cp., however, u/rt (p. 35).

er/l Eilers considers rl a lengthening cons. group. That seems, however, questionable. If we look at his instances from Orrm, for example, we find short vowel everywhere, except in eorless, cherl, where the OE diphthong may have resulted in a long vowel, $\bar{\theta}$ or \bar{c} , perhaps \bar{c} after a palatal \check{c} . Cp. Bülbring, Bonner Beitr. 15, 138. — Cp. also $\bar{e}nd < \bar{e}\bar{o}nd$, p. 37 Note 1.

In any case, we find no rimes in Ch. bearing on this question. Ell. sometimes spells B 3658 peerle (pearl), but it is impossible to decide whether this form belonged to the poet or not, and even if it did, the ee may be the result of a reaction against forms like perele(s) (not in Ell.), which no doubt represent a syllabification of l in the scribe's dialect. In case of length, the vowel must have been \bar{e}^{l} . The ModE pronunciation is no criterion in this case. Cp. serve—starve, in Ch. A 1143 sterve: serve, or discerne, berne (barn), both with \bar{e} in Ch. In serve, discerne the influence of spelling saved these words from the late ME change er > ar.

e/rn HF 910 discerne : yerne, adv.

IV 198 ~ : yerne < zērnan (WS -ie-)

III 373 governe : eterne : yerne, adv.

D 333 laterne : werne < wērnan (WS -ie-)

¹ Wild, 209, assumes \overline{e} .

This case is parallel to that of o/rd. Had length prevailed, we should have got $\bar{e}rn^1$ in native, $\bar{e}rn$ in French words. The short vowel in the native group is proved by rimes like F 256 $fern < f\bar{e}arn : fern < Kent$. $fern = WS f\bar{y}rn$ (formerly), C 397 berne (barn): yerne, adv. The later development of bern (barn) shows that a secondary lengthening is out of the question for Ch.

o/rn A 3388 scorn: horn, A 4110 ~: born, C 624 ~: therbiforn.

 $Scorn^2$ is derived from escorner < *excornāre (< cornu). The rime with born, a syncopated form of OE boren, is conclusive enough for short vowel. Cp. e/rn, o/rd.

u/rn D 988 sojourne: tourne I 848 sojorne: torne III 1483, V 596: retourne I 324 torne: sojorne: borne V 1350 ~: retorne (to burnish)

There is a wavering between ou and o. This is apparently due to the fact that in (re)torne, which forms part of all the rimes mentioned, the spelling of the native $t \check{u} r n e^3 < OE$ turnian was normalized, and, in some cases, gave rise to o for ou even in the rime-word, as in I 324, etc.

The native t "implies" near the had short vowel as is seen from II 797 sporneth: torneth (spurns; turns). In the rimes with sojourne, however, Ch. undoubtedly borrowed the French tourner to suit the rime. Then it was pronounced <math>"implies" in "implies" near the mode of the same reason as in <math>"implies" in "implies" in

¹ Orrm had still $\bar{e}r/n$, as he had \bar{o}/rd .

² This word is etymologically unconnected with ME scarn Orm's skarn, which belongs to OF escharnir < eschernir < OHG skërn $\bar{o}n$ (to mock). See Körting.

³ Orrm has turrnenn.

⁴ This is not the only triple rime of that type. See p. 60 Note 1.

The last word has OF \ddot{u} . We have already seen that OF \ddot{u} became in ME either iu- in an open syllable, or \breve{u} in a checked syllable. The spelling o, in fact, cannot mean anything else than \breve{u} for borneth, and \breve{u} is also required by the rime with torneth, \bar{u} is impossible.

In the following rimes we have to deal with loans from the Latin, and the vowel is pronounced as in native u/rn, i. e. \check{u} .

V 309 turne: urne (urn) A 1327, 2454 ~: saturne

It should be noted that even if these words had gone through French, and there had the vowel \ddot{u} , the result would have been the same in ME owing to the checked position. French origin for *urne* is unlikely, however, since the first instance given by Hatzf.-D. is from 1539.

e/rs A 3174 werse: reherce (worse; to rehearse)

IV 1194 werse: adverse: diverse

These rimes with werse show that no lengthening had taken place before rs. — As to A 1598 fiers (e), see p. 77.

o/rs B 285 fors (force, importance)

No lengthening can be ascertained here.

u/rs See p. 35.

To sum up, we find no case where length may be ascribed to the old tendency of lengthening before the said groups. Possibly a secondary lengthening had taken place in o/rd. For \bar{u}/nd , \bar{u}/rd we have to compare the length in \bar{u}/nt , \bar{u}/rt of French loans.

VIII. Vocalic Quantity before dz, tf.

This question is of particular interest in view of the seemingly arbitrary differentiation in ModEnglish between the various vowels in this position. We are struck with the inconsistency in the pronunciation of words like: wage—attach, allege, siege—abridge, lodge—approach, grudge—couch.

¹ For a full discussion of this question, see p. 33.

 $^{^2}$ In Ell. the word is spelt burned (B 4054, C 38, F 1247), but \check{u} is meant, anyway.

It has been pointed out that the normal development of the monosyllabic type, with unchecked vowel, had given a long vowel in Ch. We should, therefore, expect to find length in all these instances in Ch.'s language. That we do not is due to another factor, whose importance has already been emphasized, namely the adaptation, as far as possible, of the foreign to the native sound-groups. In fact, we do find length in all cases where no short vowel in the corresponding native group counter-acted the tendency towards length. From OE were developed the groups atf. ĕdz, ĭdz, ĭtf¹, all with short vowels, and these groups seem to have impeded the lengthening of the vowel in the same groups of the French vocabulary. For u the lengthening is carried through regularly, in spite of the native utf², owing again to the close character of the French u (p. 36). a/dz The combination age is very common. The frequent suffix -age < -āticum is used in rimes in the same way as if it were full-stressed, i. e. with a long vowel. In natural speech we have to assume ă, as in F 772, G 731 avántage, etc.

A 2591 age: avantage A 3223~: cage

A 2012 rage: outrage F 835 ~: aswage (to assuage),

A 3029 ~ : page (boy), etc.

The regular length is to be assumed in all instances. In ModE outrage we find [idz] for the noun, $[e^idz]$ for the verb. Cp. the suffix -ate = [it] and $[e^it]$.

a/t∫ No rimes. Elsewhere we find, for example³,

G 11 cacche (to catch) 21, 18 tache (defect)

For reasons mentioned above the vowel was here short, as is suggested by the Ell. spelling as well as by the later development ⁴.

¹ As in lacche < læccan, egge < ecg, brigge < brycg, riche < rice.

² Whose only source was OE $y\check{e}\check{e}$, as in ME, NE crutch < OE cryce. This group was reinforced by a few loans with OF \ddot{u} , which appears as ME \check{u} before tf (p. 46).

³ 13, 22 vache is by Skeat explained as belonging to OF vache (cow). It is rather a proper name, as has been made probable by Edith Rickert, Mod. Phil., Oct., 1913.

⁴ Remarkable is the ModEngl. pronunciation of the letter h (OF ache).

e/d; A 3000, E 1658, III 295 abregge¹: allegge (to abridge; to allege) IV 925 abregge¹: egge (edge)
A 3989 Cantebregge: collegge (Cambridge; college)

The last rime only gives an example of a metrical change of stress, the natural stress resting no doubt on the first syllable of *cóllegge*. Generally a shifting of that kind usually resulted in a lengthening of the vowel in open position (p. 4). That no length arose here is due to the simple fact that the vernacular had no group ℓdz . Thus we find the law of adaptation working here too.

An exception seems to be found in

A 56 sege (seat), V 1496 bisege (to besiege),

but these words belong to a different type. Both words are of the same origin, containing an OF ie (< e), which in AF became e. This vowel invariably gave ME \bar{e} . The case is different with abregge, allegge, B 2477 aggregge (to aggravate), I 979 engregge (to burden), etc., where no monophthongization of ie has taken place, these verbs being derived from the end-stressed forms of the French verbs. — For $l\bar{e}ge$ (liege) Ch. evidently had lige, the normal form in Ell. (See i/dz).

e/tf HF 1778, III 935 tecches (defects)

Chaucer's own. The spelling points to short vowel, at least for the scribes. It is hard to understand why length did not enter here. The vernacular had ētf as well as ětf, so that no pressure from the native types disturbed the natural development. Of course, a word of such rare occurrence cannot be taken as a typical example. It was rather felt as a foreign word, and pronounced in the French way. Another possibility is influence from the related tache, with short vowel.

In any case, tf did not prevent the lengthening of a

 $^{^1}$ The later change e>i is identical with the development mentioned by Morsbach, Gr. \S 109. It should be noted, however, that even OF had a form abrigier.

preceding e, as may be proved by the vowel in D 767, 1310, E 2257, etc. *léchour* (lecher), if we accept Luick's interpretation of NE spellings with ea in this word as a sign of length. Cp. p. 28, on length before a velar ending.

When a vowel was the result of monophthongization, length was normal. So in A 482 $pr\bar{e}che <$ preechier (to preach):

tēche (to teach).

i/d; C 337, E 310, etc. lige < lige, liege < Gic *lędigu

The regular OF vowel was i, which, however, interchanged with ie, corresponding to ME \bar{e} .

We should have expected to find i here, as the vernacular had i/dz, but no i/dz. The long vowel seems, however, undeniable, since a short i would have been indicated by gg. The lengt in lige may have been analogical from that of $l\bar{e}ge$. The material is, however, too sçanty to allow of infallible conclusions. It should be borne in mind too that the ModE [i] does not necessitate \bar{e} in the ME word, since it is doubtful whether a diphthongization of i/dz could take place at all².

i/t The only rime containing OF i/t is

D 346 riche : rubriche (rubric) < rubriche < rubrica (NED rubrish)³.

I have not been able to ascertain the accentuation for the latter word, but if the stress lay on \hat{u} the i-vowel was necessarily short. In any case, however, short quantity was to be expected on account of the exclusiveness of the native itf, which also made an artificial lengthening impossible. — In riche French and English may have coöperated.

Short was the i naturally also in A 349, HF 1392 $partrich^3$ (partridge) = OF pardriz (and perdiz) < perdicem.

¹ Anglia 30, 18.

² The [ai] of ModE oblige is a spelling-pronunciation of comparatively recent date.

³ As no phonetical development could make $tf > \check{s}$, rubrish must owe its -ish to a change of suffixes.

o/dz B 4044 logge: orlogge¹ (lodge; clock) B 4181 ylogged, vb.

It seems curious that o should have become short before dz, although a group \breve{o}/dz did not exist in the vernacular. This fact is the more remarkable if we consider that a/dz, and even o/tf, resulted in long vowels. It does not seem unlikely that in OF the end-stressed forms of logier had a geminated dz (< dz + i), which gave rise to a ME short vowel. Cp. Iugge (below).

o/tf D 177 approche, vb:abroche (to broach)
F 555 ~: galoche HF 1116 ~: roche (rock)

Outside the rimes we find

HF 1740 broche (brooch) B 2447 hoche-pot (hotch-potch).

We have every reason to assume a long vowel, except in hoche-pot, which may be considered as a single word of the trisyllabic type, i. e. with full stress only on the first syllable, whose vowel consequently was short. Even if the word was pronounced with level stress, \check{o} is not unlikely to have entered analogically from pot.

The group o/tf did not exist in the vernacular at all, so the development of length is regular².

Ch.'s form of galoche did not survive, but was replaced in NE by a fresh introduction of the word, giving ModE galosh.

u/dy The only instance I have found is HF 2129 bowges (bags, budgets)

Nothing can be concluded from this single word. The spelling points to \bar{u} , which is also what one might expect. A diphthongization of \bar{u}/dz could hardly be expected, even if the word had survived.

u/tf A 3931 touche: pouche (to touch; pouch)
D 88 ~: couche (,, ; couch)
A 3479 crouche (to mark with a cross)
D 743 ouche (n/ouch) HF 1350 nouches (n/ouch).

¹ The natural stress was on the initial syllable, as appears from 5, 350.

² Short vowel seems to have occurred in the ME equivalent of ModE botch, in Ch. boch, Boeth. 3 P IV, 9, < ONF boche = CentF boce (A 3266 bos, 'boss'). This word did not appear before the end of the 14th c.

The spelling points to long vowel in all these words, and the ModE pronunciation represents the regular development of length, with the exception of touch, which must have suffered shortening in late ME, and crouch, which fell into disuse.

It is remarkable that although there existed in ME a group $\check{u}tf$ (< OE $y\check{e}\check{e}^{i}$) which might have served as a substitute for the corresponding French combination, the loanwords of this type received a long vowel on ME soil. As in the case of u/r + consonant, we have to explain this fact as due to the difference between the English and the French u, the latter of which had a quality resembling that of ME \bar{u} rather than \bar{u} .

As to A 3479 *erouche*, it is true that we find this word as early as late OE, but for phonetical reasons it must be placed among the French loan-words. OE $cr\bar{u}c$ could not have its final consonant palatalized to tf. In all probability, we have to do here with an AF loan.

A 3863 grucche (to grudge) cannot very well be derived from AF groucher, as is generally assumed in the dictionaries. In that case the result would have been ME \bar{u} as in the words given above. That the original vowel was \ddot{u} is rendered likely by the occasional spelling gricche in ME. This u in grucche cannot originate in an OE u, which is irreconcilable with the following tf. On the other hand, the word might have contained an OE y, which in an great number of words became u before tf. The most probable source, however, is AF gruchier (Moisy). The short ME vowel need not be ascribed to an OF gemination, since the group $\ddot{u}ch$ was replaced spontaneously by ME $\breve{u}tf$. Cp. duchess.

ü/d₃ A 1720 Iuge: refuge (judge; refuge)

I 839 diluge (deluge) A 2951 huge

C 738 Iugged II 21 Iuggen (to judge)

The regular equivalent of AF \ddot{u} in unchecked position was ME iu, and even here this development held good. Consequently A 1720 is a correct rime. The ModE pro-

¹ As in cryce (erutch), clyce(e)an (to clutch).

nunciation, however, points to ME \check{u} , and so does the spelling Iugged, where gg gives us the right to assume short vowel. It seems, indeed, as though in ME the noun and the verb had different vocalic quantities, of which the later development generalized that of the verb. That the ME verb had a short vowel is ascribed by Wild, 218, to the victory of end-stressed forms of the French verb. This is true only if we assume that in French $d_{\mathcal{F}}$ had become long through the absorption of i in jugier, since a French short vowel + short consonant as a rule resulted in ME long vowel + short consonant.

In conclusion it may be ascertained that, whenever the vernacular did not possess the exact equivalent of the foreign vowel/dz, tf, the ME vowel became long.

IX. Spelling-pronunciation in Chaucer.

Before the great vowel-shift English spelling-pronunciation can hardly have been of any great importance. The influence exercised upon the English language by the revival of the study of Latin cannot alone account for the vocalic differentiation in words which might be expected to have had a parallel development. Of course spelling-pron. presupposes a wide-spread knowledge of reading and writing, but it is natural, too, that as long as the difference between \bar{e} and \check{e} , $\bar{\imath}$ and $\check{\imath}$, $\bar{\imath}$ and $\check{\imath}$, was only one of quantity, the spelling was as distinctly expressed by either of the two, that is, the alphabetical value of the vowel—which naturally was expressed by long quantity—was not a necessary expedient for emphasizing the spelling.

It can thus be taken for granted that the change of $\bar{e} > \bar{\imath}$, $\bar{\imath} > ai$, $\bar{u} > au$ which gave new values to the letters e, i, u, was responsible for the occassional use of the diphthong, where a short vowel might be expected. It is therefore not admissible to assume that every polysyllabic

¹ In the case of $\tilde{a}-\check{a}$, $\tilde{o}-\check{o}$, spelling-pron. may have been of a still more recent date, as the differentiation in early NE was not as yet so conspicuous here as in the other vowels.

word with a ModE diphthong necessarily had a ME long vowel. ModE license, for instance, does not prove a ME $\bar{\imath}$ for this word, since — apart from the position in hiatus (p. 31) — i- was not lengthened in Ch.'s language. The ModE vacillation between $[\bar{\imath}]$ and [e] in legend evidently did not originate in ME, where we can assume only legend (p. 27).

In one case, however, spelling-pron. may have existed even in Ch. — to what extent cannot be ascertained — namely when \check{u} was written o, that is before or after m, n, v, and occasionally r, s. Thus it is impossible to determine in every single case if con- was pronounced $k\check{u}n$ or $k\check{o}n$, the latter being the result of spelling-pron., whereas $k\check{u}n$ was the regular continuation of the AF prefix. Of course we do not know if Ch. knew two vowels in, for example, conduit (ModE [o] and [o]). The spelling-pron. may be of a later date. For other examples of this use of spelling-pron., see Koeppel, o4 ff. See also under o4 Part II.

The traditional spelling and association with native out probably gave rise to a ME spelling-pron. of outrage.

As to enhance (= CF enhancer) with n for u, this corruption had taken place in AF (Koeppel, 2).

Another kind of spelling-pron. — that of the rime-vowel of a polysyllable — has been briefly touched upon above (p. 4). Rimes like B 935 desolat: maat (dejected), C 685 tauerner: yeer, B 363 malice: vyce, G 808 vitriole: cole (coal), D 1937 auditours: sours (source) show that a polysyllable with a regularly unstressed final syllable could have the vowel lengthened if it happened to become sufficiently stressed, as was the case in rimes. There the respective vowels got their alphabetical value, that is \bar{a} , \bar{e} , \bar{i} , $\bar{\rho}$.

I have assumed close quality for the ME letter e. If the OE \bar{e} , \bar{o} had come to represent the alphabetical pronunciation of these letters in ME, we might expect a priori the close quality for both. Now, the pronunciation of the letters as a whole points to French influence (g, h, j, etc.), so we may safely assert that the alphabetical values of the vowels should be traced back to the ME school-

pronunciation as it was normalized by French teachers or at least by French models. This origin agrees well with the vocalic values given above.

A letter evidently had the value which it generally represented at the end of a monosyllable, as in he, we, go, to, etc. Now in French words (beautee, etc.) e was always close in final position. Loan-words with final o did not exist in ME, but the majority of French loans with o had the open vowel, so \bar{e} was likely to be generalized as the value of the letter o. In native words we find also words with final \bar{e} (do, to, etc.), but on the whole \bar{e} was more common than \bar{e} also in native words. — Rimes containing proper names are little conclusive on account of the poet's inconsistent use of do, to, in rimes (Part II, \bar{e}). Cp., for instance, I 72 Appollo: fordo: go; II 8 Cleo: do; G 1448 Plato: to; G 1460 Plato: tho (then).

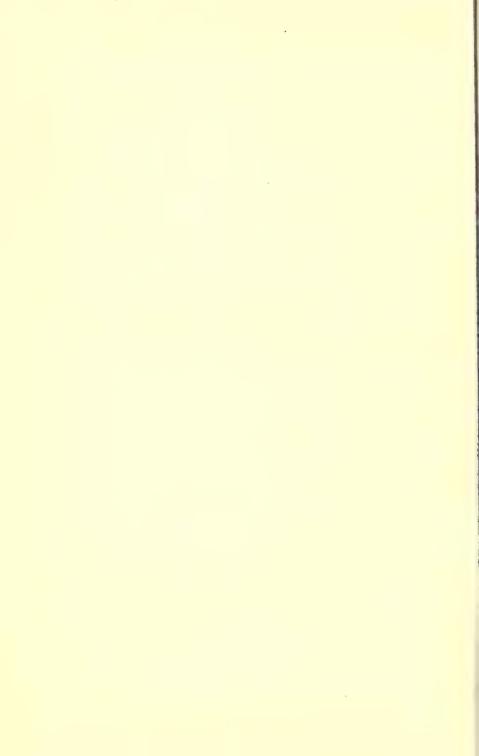
For the letter u I have assumed the diphthong even for Ch.'s time. In Ell., whose spelling has been considered the most accurate copy of the poet's own works, the long \bar{u} -vowel is already quite consistently represented by ou. It seems therefore unquestionable that the letter u had the pronunciation it generally represented in open syllables — stressed or unstressed — of the French loans (cp. p. 33). A ME \bar{u} would, moreover, have given a NE diphthong oi.

The value of the letter y is irrelevant for our purposes, as in Ch.'s dialect it was equivalent to i. It is not unlikely, however, that the school-pronunciation of y was also originally iu, which then on account of the actual value of y— i. e. i— became iui, and, by way of dissimilation, ui > ModE wai.

(Morris and Skeat, Specimens of Early English, II 108).

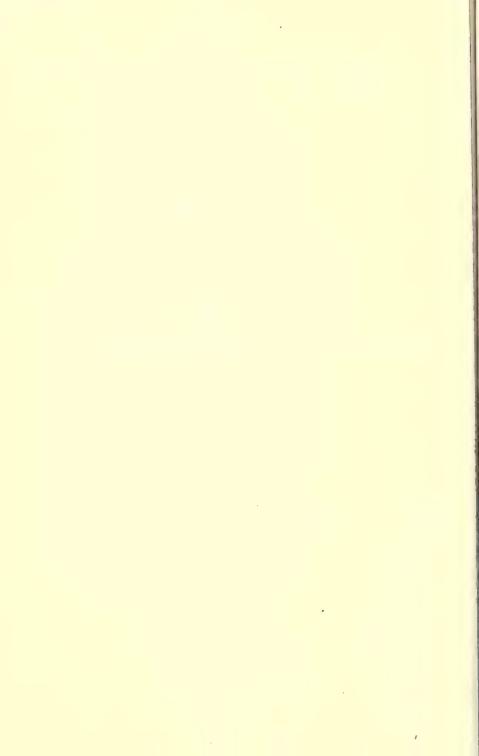
¹ The following rime from Richard Rolle of Hampole may be adduced simply as a curiosity.

And if the child a woman be when it is born it says e, e, e is the first letter and the hede of the name of Eve that began our dede.



PART II

STRESSED VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS



Vowels.

a.

Spelling.

As a rule a is used in the Ell. MS to express long as well as short vowel. In closed syllables aa occasionally stands for \bar{a} , before a nasal + consonant also au.

 \bar{a} .

- I. In open syllable.
 - (a) Monosyllabic type 1. Sources:
 - 1) a in originally unchecked position.

This group consists chiefly of learned loan-words from Latin, the normal development of Latin a giving OF e, ME \tilde{e} .

Examples 3.

B 498 cave < cave < cava (< cavus)

: knāve

¹ So I designate here, too, not only the monosyllables proper, but also those with an -e added, since the vocalism had the same development in both. The same point of view is chosen with regard to the terms dissyllabic and trisyllabic.

² a-, e-, etc. means a, e, etc. in open syllables.

³ To indicate the sources of the Romanic words, I simply give first the form that in AF must have been the direct source, and then the Latin word. Only when the Central French dialect had another

3, 261 cave: have 1 vb.

G 1410 date < date < data (< dare)

: lāte, adv.

B 1719 declāre < declarer (CF also declerer) < dēclārāre : bāre, adj.

B 571 ~: snāre, sb.

A 3055 fāme < fame < fāma

: nāme, sb.

2) a in originally checked position.

A large number of these words contain an a followed by earlier, b_i , k_i , v_i , and, in the case of a separating consonant that later was dropped, also t_i^{2} .

Here I place also the frequent type of an unchecked a due to the simplification of a Latin double consonant or to the loss of the first of two consecutive consonants, no matter if that group came down from Latin or was due to syncopation.

These two sections are practically parallel, since both are instances of the elimination, or assimilation, of a consonant. The result was in both cases an unchecked a in OF, \bar{a} in ME.

Examples:

A 3224 āge < e(d)age < *ætāticum < ætas, ātis + āticum : cāge < cage < cayea

E 1103 arāce < aracer = CF aracher, < exrādīcāre : fāce < face < *facia (facies)

B 861 blāme < bla(s)mer < blasphēmāre (< Greek) : nāme, sb.

E 395 chāce < CF chacer < *captiāre (< captus) : grāce < grace³ < grātia

form and when the word was not of Latin origin, will this be particularly mentioned. — The quantity of the vowels will be denoted only in case of length. — Rimes where the length in one or both words was only due to metrical stress, will be designated by *.

¹ When used as an auxiliary, this verb had probably \check{a} by this time, later on generalized, whence the ModE short vowel.

 $^{^{2}}$ a/ti> ais. But cp. captiare < chacer (ME chace).

⁸ Learned word, since a/ti should give ai.

B 1889 embrāce < CF embracer < in + *brāc(h)iāre (< brā-c(h)ium)

: plāce < place < *plattia = platea 1

16, 10 escāpe < escaper = CF eschap(p)er < *ex-cappāre (< cappa)

: shāpe (pa. p.) < OE sceapen (to scieppan)

3, 564 fāde < fader, to fade < *fatidus (for fatuus)
: glāde (to gladden)

B 205 pāce, vb. < passer < *passāre (< passus) : spāce < espace < spatium

A 3972 page < page < Gr. παθικός, rather than παιδίον (Kört.) : age, sb.

A 3119 pāle < pale < pallidus (For the OF form, see Schw. § 76 A.)
: tāle. sb.

V 801 squāre, adj. pl. < esquar(r)e, adj. and sb., < ex + quadrum

3) au/v

C 200 sāve < sauver < salvāre : hāve (to have)

A 2713 sāve (sage) = OE salfie, assimilated to the verb save (NED)
: hāve

Here the last element of the diphthong had been absorbed by the homorganic following v. We might expect to find the same development also for the adj. safe, which, however, in Ell. appears as B 343, 2373 sauf(ly). There is hardly any reason to believe that the diphthong would have been better preserved before a voiceless than before a voiced consonant, or that it would have been saved by the f belonging to the same syllable. In sauf au was no doubt simply a traditional spelling, which later on was replaced by the present a. As for au denoting \bar{a} , compare the common spelling aun/cons.

¹ Which would have given ai. Ch. has regularly the final -e. Only in Sir Thopas, where many deliberate blunders are made, do we find plas: B 1971 was: gras: plas: solas, sb.

4) able (acle)

A 167 āble < able < habilis

: stāble < estable < stabulum

A 3571 gāble < gable < Scand. gafl

: stāble, sb.

4, 282 sāble: stāble, sb. < sable < Med. L sabellum (< Russ.)

C 515* tāble < table < tabula

: mesurāble 1

In a similar way we expect metrical length in

A 1787* myrācles < miracle < mīrāculum

: obstācles < obstāculum

C 314* triācle (treacle) < triacle < thēriaca (< Gr.)

: cardynācle, for cardiacle < cardiaque < cardiaca (< Gr.)

The ModE vowel in *treacle* is due, according to Koeppel, 67, to a sound-substitution, ea being more common than ia.

The long vowel before this combination of muta cum liquida must be ascribed to a lengthening of the same kind as that of a-, that is, a consonant group which could be placed in initial position was referred undivided to the following syllable. Thus $t\tilde{u}$ -ble gave a long vowel in the same way as $f\tilde{a}$ -me.

Special cases.

It is interesting to observe that Ch., who still kept apart $sm\bar{a}l - sm\bar{a}le^2$, applied the same differentiation also to French words in $-\bar{a}l$, which inflected appears as $-\bar{a}le(s)$. Since this suffix could not receive full stress, the lengthening was confined to the position in rime, where it had an artificial stress. As a rule the plural ending was -s (not -es) for polysyllabic words. It is noteworthy, however, that these endings rimed with native - $\bar{a}le$, not with - $\bar{a}lle$, showing that the tendency of lengthening was still operating. — Examples:

¹ In natural speech the suffix -able must have had ă.

² A 3233 smāl: ăl (small, all), A 330 smāle: tāle, sb.

C 342* cardināles, sb.: tāles, sb.

B 2038* ~ : roiāles, adj. (French pl.): tāles

mynstrāles (minstrels) < ministral < Late L ministeriālis

: tāles, sb.

Here we might put

A 381 galyngāle¹ < galingal (< Arab.)

:āle, sb.,

where ME added an inorganic -e.

Of the same kind are

C 306* Galiānes² (a medicine)

: Iurdānes 2 'urinal' (NED jordan)

B 4149* terciāne < tertiāna (febris)

: bane (death) < OE bana

G 934 crāsed (broken): amāsed (< OE amasod)

This is probably a Scand. word, as French *écraser* did not appear before the 16th c. (See M.-L., Et. Wb., *krasa*). It would also be surprising to come across *only* aphetic forms of this word in ME. Cp. NED and Björkm., 247.

A 3260 dame (dam) < dame < domina

: gāme, sb.

A 3956 dāme (madam): sāme

The a < o was here due to proclitic use. Cp. dan < dominus. For madame, see p. 67.

B 4002 *Tāde* (jade) : glāde (to gladden)

Skeat considers this word a Scand. loan. The initial dz makes such an etymology untenable and rather points to French origin. It seems very reasonable to assume connection with Walloon gade (goat), the g being due to the differentiation prevailing in the OF dialects with regard to the development of g, k/a, which, according to Schw. § 139 A, in Picardy and Nothern Normandy did not change into dz, tf.

¹ 'Galingale, the aromatic root of an East Indian plant' (NED). — Of course such a word may have had a spelling-pron. — with \bar{a} — even in ME.

² These words, both of obscure origin (see Skeat, Notes), are written -ones in Ell., as against the majority of -anes in other MSS.

A 4201 Iāpe (jape, trick): āpe, sb.

III 410 ~ : frāpe (company) < frape, to French frapper?

Here, too, we *might* have to do with the same kind of differentiation as in the case of *Iade*. In that case *Iape* would be referred to OF *gaber* (to mock), which has a sense suiting that of the ME word. But there is no greater difficulty in associating the word with OF *japer* (to yelp) a word of imitative nature that could easily have assumed the meaning given above to the ME loan-word.

(β) Dissyllabic type.

Source: Pretonic a in the open syllable of a certain group of words (p. 28). — Examples:

B 4035 bácoun < bacon < Gic *bacco (back)

C 856 cápoun¹ < capun < cāpo, -ōnis

HF 1233 famous < *famous (F fameux) < famosus

1, 106 labour < labour < labor, -ōris

D 287 lävours (lavers) < lavour < *lavātōrum²

HF 690 rásour (razor) < rasour < rasor, -ōris

G 887 sávour < savour < sapor, -ōris

F 393 vapour < vapor, -oris

(γ) Trisyllabic type. — Sources:

1) Pretonic a in the open syllable of a certain group of words (p. 32). — Examples:

A 138 āmiable < amiable < amīcābilis

A 53 naciouns (nations) < nation < natio, -onis

5, 617 nature < nature < natura

19, 16 saveour (saver; saviour) < sauveour < salvator, -ōris

G 1175 váriaunt < variant < varians, -ntis

2) Pretonic a in hiatus (p. 31).

B 489 Ebráic (Hebraic) < hebraique (< Gr. Ἑβραϊκός)

II. In closed syllable.

1) Before final consonant.

This group consists partly of learned French loans from Latin — the natural result of a Latin unchecked a

¹ The single instance in Aelfric (NED) cannot justify the assumption of OE origin for this word.

² Cp. lavātōrium > OF laveoir.

being e in OF (Schw. § 52 a) — partly of such words as had an originally checked a.

 \bar{a}

B 3851 Aas (ace) < as < ās, -sis

: cās < cas < cāsus

: wās

: allas < ha las < lassus

A 2358 caas¹ (case) < casse (CF chasse) < capsa cās (case) < cāsus

B 935* desolāt < desolat (CF desolé) < dēsolātus

: maat (dejected) < mat (< Persian-Arab. māt)

: renegat < renegat < *renegātus (< re + nego)

A 2389 lās (lace) < laz < laqueus

: allās

C 163 pās (pace) < pas < passus

: cās (case)

A 571 stāt (state) < estat < status

: achāt (purchase) < achat, to achater < *accaptare (< captus)

According to the principles set forth above, p. 26, length is undisputable only in the stressed syllable of words of the monosyllabic type. Hence words like desolat received full length in the final syllable only when used as rimewords. In that position the syllable -lat was stressed and was subject to the same lengthening as the vowel of a monosyllabic word.

This phenomenon is interesting because it gives an explanation of the dubious quantity of the vowel in the native was, which I have given above as was. The vowel of this word was originally short, as is evident from a rime like A 152 was: glas (glass). But it should be noted that this word was normally unstressed and consequently parallel with the final syllable of desolat, for instance. Thus an

¹ The only rime containing this word in Ch., except the one given above, is LGW 982 cas: Eneas, where the proper name had its vowel artificially lengthened to suit the rime. Cp. wās. — It is remarkable that the -e had disappeared in the ME form of this word, but it should be considered that in AN -e began to drop towards the end of the 12th c. (Schw. § 256 A).

artificial lengthening could easily take place, since the unstressed was contained a short vowel + a short consonant, a combination which in the case of an artificial stressing invariably favoured the length of the vowel, not of the consonant. But it is not necessary that this lengthening should be confined to the position in rime. The modern language presents a similar process for this word. In emphatical speech was is now pronounced, not $[w v \bar{z}]$, but $[w \bar{v}z]$. It seems not absurd to assume that in the normal pronunciation at Ch.'s time both was and was were possible, according to its occurrence in unstressed or stressed position. — Cp. the double quality of $w \tilde{e}l$ (p. 83).

A word should be said also about allás. It rimes regularly with $\bar{a}s$ in French words and quite often with was. One rime, however, calls for a special attention: B 191 $w\bar{a}s:all\bar{a}s:gl\bar{a}s$. It would seem that \bar{a} should be the only possibility there. But we occasionally find that when Ch. made a rime of more than two rime-words he could content himself with an exact rime for every two of the group. Here $w\bar{a}s$ rimed very well with $all\bar{a}s$, as well as with $gl\bar{a}s$, though these two did not rime between them 1.

The ModE $[\bar{a}]$ in alas may be looked upon as the ME vowel unchanged, which is not surprising considering its character of interjection.

1) *āst*

A 2051 chāste < OF chaste < castus

: haste < F haster < Gic *haist- (OE hæst)

5, 283 \sim : wāste < waster = CF g(u)aster < Gic *wast- (+ vastāre?)

As to the disappearence of s before consonant in OF we would refer to the following statement by Bourciez²:

'Au Nord, le s s'est effacé dès la fin du XI^e siècle devant certain consonnes, dans des mots comme blasmer,

¹ There are several instances of such rimes: I 324 torneth: sojorneth: borneth (p. 40), B 1968 was: gras: plās: solās, of which the latter, however, is somewhat suspect, as it belongs to Sir Thopas, where rime and metre are often deliberately neglected.

² Éléments de linguistique rom., 333.

isle, etc. Cent ans plus tard, il ne se faisait plus entendre (sauf an Nord-Est en pays wallon) devant les consonnes sourdes'.

These dates not only give us a terminus a quo as well as ad quem for the French loans in general - cp. ME blame and haste — but also make it probable that the tendency to disappear before voiceless consonants was already active by the time the majority of loan-words came over. In that case we have to assume as parallel with the disappearance of s a gradual lengthening of the preceding vowel in OF. This assumption seems to be corroborated by a description of the weakening of this s given in Orthographia Gallica (13th c.): 'Quant s est joynt [a la t] ele avera le soun de h, come est, plest seront eght, pleght'. The development of an h-like sound after the vowel must practically have resulted in a long preceding vowel. Thus it came about that the group -ast in French loan-words did not give up its long vowel in spite of the rather common native ăst1.

3) $a/n + single \ cons.$ (except k^2 , which changed n to y). A 246* avance < avancier < *abanteāre (< ab + ante)

: aqueyntance \$ < aqueintance, to queint = CF coint < cognitus

5, 612 braunche < CF branche < branca

: paunche < panche (< F panse) < pantex, icis

G 592* chânce < CF cheance < *cadentia (< cado)

: daliance 3 < *dalliaunce, to dallier (to chat) (< Gic?)

H 223* errant < errant < errans, -antis

: tyrānt < tyran(t) < tyrannus

D 1013 grānte < graanter < creanter < *crēdentāre (< crēdo)

: auānte (to boast) < avanter < ad + *vānitāre (< vānor)

¹ Irregular is A 3728 hāste, sb.: făste, adv.

² As in B 1391 frankes (the coin) < franc < Gic *Frank- (OHG Franko = a Frank)

[:] flankes < flanc < Gic? *hlanka (OHG hlanka = loin)

[:] thankes (thanks)

³ The suffixes -ance, -ant were artificially lengthened in rime.

HF 698 graunges < grange < *grānea (< grānum)

: eschaunges < CF eschange, to eschanger < ex + cambiare (Georges, Handwb.)

A 1696 launde (lawn) < lande < celtic *landa (Irish laun)

: comaunde < comander < *commandare (< con + mando)

With regard to the phonetical history of this $\bar{a}/n + \text{cons.}$ it should be observed that in AF the nasal $\bar{a}n$ had lost its nasalization by the end of the 13th c.1, or perhaps even earlier, as we find the spelling au in AF texts as early as the beginning of that century. That the AF really had the diphthong is also clearly stated by the Ortographia Gallica.

Is it necessary to assume that in early ME the AF au < a should have resulted in a diphthong au? If not, is it probable that AF au could supersede the early ME monophthong? Both questions seem to require a negative answer. From the early 13th c. we find coexisting ME spellings au, a in these words. From the same period ou begins to interchange with o, u as a symbol for \bar{u} . While thus a digraph was no extraordinary spelling for a monophthong, it was not possible to express a diphthong through a single vowel. In the same way as the ou, which in OF came to be written for u in general, was specialized in ME for \bar{u} , so AF au/n was adopted to signify \bar{a} , although the conflicting influence of AF au and Central F a prevented any consistency in the ME spelling of this a. Even in Ell. the spelling is far from being uniform on this point, although au is in the majority, often indicated simply by a following \bar{n} ($a\bar{n} = aun$). That au was not always a symbol of length is clear from its occurrence in stressless syllables, where length was impossible. Cp. -aunce, -aunt. Hence the spelling au/n can be said to have represented a traditional spelling, in ME meaning ā or ă. The short quantity was not reduced to the unstressed syllables. Thus words like B 2767 abaundoneth (abandons), D 1156 auncestres (ancestors), D 411

¹ Uhlemann, St. Auban, in Rom. St. 4, 596.

63

raunson (ransom), where the later development presupposes ă, were analogous to words of the dissyllabic type in general.

 \bar{a}

Various interpretations of the development of the AF aun in ME have been suggested. The explanation given by ten Brink, § 70, according to which Ch.'s pronunciation of this sound should be defined as 'dunkleres \bar{a} ', written \bar{a}^u , 'really comes nearer to an accurate solution of the problem than those given by Luick and Vietor. Only it is difficult to accept the back ('dunkleres') quality of this \bar{a} , as that kind of \bar{a} could hardly have passed into the \bar{a} that must have preceded ModE [\bar{a}] in grant, etc. It may rather be supposed to have had much the same quality as its modern equivalent and could hardly differ from the normal ME \bar{a} .

Luick, Anglia 16,479, assumes a ME diphthong as the necessary substrate of ModE [ρ], and suggests as a probable development: $au > \bar{a} > \bar{e} > \bar{a}$ (p. 486). The first of these changes — $au > \bar{a}$ — strikes me as irreconcilable with English sound-laws in general — an exception being the monophthongization of au before a labial.

The contradictions presented by some transcriptions in early NE are not real. The galawnt given by Salesbury (1547) as parallel to bawe (ball) no doubt designated a monophthong $(\bar{\varrho})$, which, however, did not come from a ME au, but was a direct imitation of French (see below). The transcriptions given by Hart are somewhat inconsistent on this point. He transcribes, for instance, the a in change as \bar{a} , \bar{a} , au. See Jespersen, Hart's pron., 91, 93, 98 resp.

The whole question may appropriately be examined from a ModE point of view as well. We have then to distinguish between three categories of words belonging here.

1) Words with only $[\bar{a}]$, as chance, dance, grant, etc. All of these words are popular and show the regular result of the development ME $\bar{a} > \bar{e} > \bar{a}$ before a nasal/cons.

¹ ModE has [gwlent] and [gelwnt] — with a differentiation in meaning — of which the former represents the regular development, the latter a spell.-pron. with French stress, whereas the pronunciation given by Salesbury no longer exists.

- 2) Words with only $[\bar{\rho}]$, as daunt. This group is very small, and the $[\bar{\rho}]$ is due to an early NE spelling-pronunciation. This of course arose after the monophthongization of ME au, at a time when ME \bar{a} had developed so strongly in the direction of \bar{a} that this vowel could no longer be a proper substitute for the spelling au. Consequently, when early NE took up a word like jaunt from French, the vowel that best rendered the French sound was a kind of $\bar{\rho}$, which of course was written au. There seems to have prevailed a tendency at that time to introduce the spelling au/n in many words with earlier a/n, which of course was connected with the attempt to remodel the English pronunciation after the French. Cp. Salesbury's galawnt. See also under 3).
- 3) Words with $[\bar{a}]$ and $[\bar{a}]$, as gaunt, haunt, etc. Here $[\bar{a}]$ represents the popular development, whereas $[\bar{a}]$ is due to French influence. Thus both vowels could coexist in different classes of people, and if it is true that in the last century the more refined $[\bar{a}]$ has been gaining ground (Jespersen, Gr. I 301), such a tendency is only in keeping with the general inclination to spelling-pronunciation that is the result of education.

Vietor, Phon. § 49 A 6, assumes a series $\tilde{a} > \tilde{a} > \tilde{a} > \tilde{a}$, which is unsatisfactory, as it does not account for the ModE short vowel in *native* words containing the same sounds (hand, etc.). The differentiation between French and native words of this type must be original in ME.

It is obvious, too, that a differentiation of au — if a diphthong existed — into \bar{a} and \check{e} , which would naturally have been presupposed by the discrepancy between the vowels in, for instance, dance—abandon, is absurd, since in other positions au developed consistently to $[\bar{a}]$, no matter if the word belonged to the monosyllabic or dissyllabic type.

This ME $\bar{a}/n + cons$. at first coincided with ME \bar{a} in other positions. Later on — in the 17th c. — a differentiation took place, owing no doubt to the fact that when the regular \bar{a} was being more and more raised towards \bar{e} , a

following nasal+cons. preserved the \bar{e} -vowel, which again later on developed in the opposite direction, that is, it was lowered to \bar{a} — except in the American English which still has $[\bar{e}]$. — Only in one case did the raising of \bar{e} to \bar{e} take place even before n/cons., namely when n was followed by dz (strange, etc.). Of course dz, as a palatal group of sounds, favoured the raising of \bar{e} , primarily by palatalizing the n.

 \check{a} .

Sources:

1) a in checked syllables in general. — Exceptions: words of the monosyllabic type containing a/n + cons. (p. 61) or a/st (p. 60).

C 202 awarde (to award) < e(s)warder = CF esguarder < ex + *guardare (to guard), of Gic origin. See next word.

: warde (keeping) < *warde ² = CF garde < Gic *warda champioun (champion) < CF champiun < *campio, -ōnis (< campus)

LGW 926 lanterne < lanterne < lanterna

A 270 marchant (merchant) < CF marchant³ < mercans, -antis

A 17 marshal < CF mareschal < OHG marahscale

A 72 parfit (perfect) < parfit³ < perfectus

A 2732 rancour (ill-feeling) < rancour < rancor, -ōris

A 2568 sarge (serge) < sarge³, serge < sērica : large < large < larga (< largus)

B 2789 scarsetee⁴ (scarcity) < escarsetee, to scars < *excarpsus (L excerptus)

¹ If this consonant was k, in which case n became y, short quantity likewise arose: B 1392 frănkes: flănkes: thănkes (p. 61 Note 2).

² Rather than OE weard, which would have given e in Ch. (p. 38).

 $^{^{\}circ}$ On the sporadic transition of cr < ar in OF, see Schw. § 84 A. Cp., however, NED, where sarge is traced back to a LowL *sārica, which is unnecessary at least for OF.

⁴ The ModE pron. points to ME length, but such an assumption is untenable. The explanation of the long NE vowel must be looked for in the doublet *escas*, found in ME as well as in OF. This word had naturally \tilde{a} . Probably both forms coexisted for some time, but finally \tilde{b} Ruben Nöjd.

A 975 targe 1 < targe < Scand. targa : large

Remarkable is the short vowel in passe manifested by B 4501 passe (to pass): asse (ass)
C 940

**C : lasse (less)

I have found passe: asse 6 times. The doublet pace (p. 55) is far more common, occurring 16 times as a rimeword in the CT alone. The prevalence of pace was certainly due to its greater possibilities as a rime-word. In prose we find only ss (Frieshammer, 125).

The two doublets are explained by Wild, 206, as derived from the end- and the stem-stressed forms respectively, the former producing, as in the case of juger (p. 47), a short ME vowel. Here, too, the objection may be raised, however, that in ME the unchecked vowel of a monosyllabic word was generally long, so that it is immaterial in this case if we start from the stem- or the endstressed forms of the OF verb, since we do not know if these two groups had a different quantity in OF. The ME differentiation must be connected with the vacillation found in the rendering of e/s which in one word resulted in ē, in another word in ĕ (below). The French s may have had, as it has to-day, the character of a half-long consonant, and could therefore be interpreted differently by English ears. Considering the popularity of a word like passe, it was natural that passe should be victorious, since intervocalic long (unvoiced) s did not occur after long vowels in native words. The alternative \bar{a}/s no doubt belonged to the educated classes. — Cp. Morsbach, Festgabe für Wendelin Förster, 324.

2) a in open syllables of words of the dis- or polysyllabic types. — Excepted are the cases where length was due to a following velar syllable or a hiatus-i (pp. 28, 32). — -arie is treated separately below. — Examples:

the r-less form disappeared, and only its long vowel survived. — Cp. bass (perch) > OE bærs, which shows that the r-less form scas very well may originate in ME, not necessarily in OF. — See also Pogatscher, Angl. 31, 262, 265.

¹ This rime makes it clear that the word cannot be traced back to OE targe. As to target we find g even in French: OF targuette.

 \check{a} 67

A 164 chápeleyne (chaplain) < CF chapelain < *capellanus (< capella)

E 817 compárison < comparisun = CF comparaison < comparaison < rapido ratio, -ônis

A 1378 hábit (habit) < habit < habitus

A 1333 Iálousye¹ (jealousy) < jalous (jelous) < *zēlosus (< zēlus)

A 121 mádame (cp. dāme, p. 57) < ma dame

B 3789 mánace (menace) < manace, menace < mināciæ, pl.

A 2494 páleys (palace) < palais < palātium

A 315 pátent², sb. < patent < patens, -entis

A 20 tábard < tabard, of uncertain origin (See Kört.: tapēte)

A 3835 vánitee < vanitee < vānitās, < ātis

3) arie. The words in -ărie, where the hiatus-i was effectless because the following -e was unstressed (p. 32), may conveniently be placed here, as it is not necessary to consider the i as a consonant or as nonsyllabic, since we shall see that a superfluous syllable was not entirely irreconcilable with the metrical structure of Ch.'s verse (Part III).

A 3410 cárie (to carry) < carier < *carricāre (< carrus)

: tárie (to tarry) < OE tærgan³ (to bother)

: Márie (Cp. Orrm: Marze)

B 374 ~ : wárye (to curse) < OE āwærgan³

C 196 ~: ádversárie < adversarie < CF adversair < adversarius

HF 807 várye (to vary) < varier < variare

: contrárye < contrarie < CF contraire < contrārius

¹ According to Wild, 235, Ell. has a proportion of a:e=19:2 for Ialous(ye). Whether the a-forms belonged to Ch. or not may be uncertain; they show, however, an unsuccessful attempt to replace the early ME e-forms, which were normal in AF (see Moisy), by the CF a-forms, which themselves were borrowed from other dialects (See Schw. § 84 A).

² Luick, Angl. 30,35, calls attention to the fact that this word had regularly \check{a} , whereas $p\check{a}tent$ (open), adopted in the 15th c., has long vowel through spelling-pronunciation. ModE still keeps up this difference, but in America they are used interchangeably.

³ The regular Anglian form had e, but in the Mercian dialect (Rushworth) we also find a representing the i-unlaut of ea/r. See Sievers, § 159, 2.

68

The modern vary points to a long vowel. To all appearance this was due to spelling-pronunciation, and the \bar{a} was moreover regular in the related words vāriance. -ant. -ous, so that these forms may have contributed to the victory of \bar{a} in the verb.

In ModE Mary, too, the spelling seems to have been influential on the pronunciation. Of course such a spellingpron, may have coexisted, with the other form even in Ch.'s days. — Cp. also Marry (interj.).

The suffix -arie, generally unstressed, sounds in ModE [ari]. It is noteworthy, however, that in the American pronunciation the adverbs in -arily (as temporarily) consistently receive the chief stress on the antepenult. This way of stressing is of course due to the general tendency of placing the stress on the antepenult, and this tendency has been so strong that even the corresponding adjectives have a distinct secondary stress on the suffix. In England the initial stress has been monopolized in this case. Cp. -orie, p. 101.

Special cases.

First a word about -al in rimes.

A 2290 cerial (evergreen oak) < *cerial < OItal, cereal (< cerrus) : al (all)

A 1910 coral < corall < corallum (But AF corail < corallium) : wal (wall)

A 1664 general < general < generālis : al (all)

special < especial < speciālis E 47 : smal (small)

As an unstressed suffix -al naturally had a short vowel. That we do not find the artificial lengthening in rime which we can ascertain in, for instance, prisoun, naturel, when the stress came to fall on the last syllable, is due to the fact that no rime-words in all existed. We have seen above (p. 56) that as soon as an -e was added to such words, an analogical lengthening arose.

69

Remarkable is the rime B 3800 chaar (chariot) < CF char < carrus

: war (aware): totar (tore to pieces): bar (carried)

This word ought to have had a development parallel to that of staat, and it is most likely that in spite of the above rime the normal pronunciation had \bar{a} in this word. True, Ell. writes quite often baar (Wild, 319), which points to an analogical lengthening, but we have no proof of such a length for Ch. himself. In any case, adjectival forms like $sm\bar{a}l - sm\bar{a}le$ were still kept apart, as is proved by rimes, so the above rime cannot be pure, which is not very blameworthy considering the great number of rimewords required.

ŭ

Remarkable is likewise the absence of length in C 648 plat (flat): that, if this word must be traced back to OF. Phonetically satisfactory is the assumption of borrowing from OLG plat, but it seems more appropriate to reckon with influence from flat (< Scand. flatr), which was more common than the French synonym.

Finally a word has to be said about a/m + cons. This latter consonant, which was invariably a homorganic b or p, was either original or inserted in OF between m and a following consonant.

D 838 amble (to amble) < ambler < ambulare

B 167 chambre < CF chambre < camera

A 1175 dampned (condemned) < dam(p)ner < damnäre

A 2842 ensamples (example) < ensample (= CF essample) < exemplum

B 3353 flambes (flames) < flambe < flamble < flammula

It may be pointed out at once that Ell., although writing generally au before n/cons., never has au in these words. If au, as has been rendered likely from an earlier discussion, simply denoted length, it is obvious that the a of these words had a short vowel. In fact, the later development presupposes ME \check{a} to account for the vowel in

amble, damn, sample. The other words call for a special explanation.

The $[e^i]$ in *chamber* is indeed remarkable. Parallel instances are found only in *cambric*, *Cambridge*, and it is not advisable to formulate a sound-law affecting three words only. It can simply be ascertained that \bar{a} had developed between k, tf and mb. A spelling-pron. seems out of question.

It is easier to determine the relations of sample and example. The former word evidently followed the development of popular words. Hence the ModE [α]. In example we can see another instance of the revival of French influence in early NE, resulting — as was said above (p. 64) — in the substitution of $\bar{\varrho}$ for native \bar{a} in a number of French loans. In many cases this influence was accompanied by the substitution of au for a. In fact, in early NE we find also the spelling chaumber, pointing to $\bar{\varrho}$. But it is natural that $\bar{\varrho}$ should change to \bar{a} before a labial. Cp. alms, calm etc. As to flambe, we have no reason to doubt its short vowel. Mod. E flame goes back to ME flāme < AF flām(m)e < flamma.

e.

Spelling.

As a rule e is used in the Ell. MS to express long as well as short quantity. In close syllables ee is frequently written, occasionally also in open syllables, to designate length. Rarely do we meet with the traditional spellings ie, oe for \bar{e} .

 $\hat{e}.$

(a) Monosyllabic type. — Sources:

1) e in originally checked position.

The originally unchecked e had given e in CF, e in AF, which became ME \bar{e} . The words belonging to the said group retained the e before a geminated consonant, which was later on simplified. On e/dz, tf, see p. 43. — Examples: B 1066 cesse (to cease) < cesse < cessare

: encręsse (to increase)

: relęsse (to release)

A 3164 enquēre 1 (to inquire) < enquerre < *inquærere (L inquirere)

: thēre

E 769 ~: wēre (< wæron)

E 1544 ~: teere (tear)

B 4154* fumeterre (fumitory) < fumeterre < fumus terræ : there

A 407* Fynystēre (Cape Finisterre) < fīnis terræ : wēre (wæron)

B 676 prees (crowd) < *press < pressus : giltlees (guiltless)

A 3704 tę̃te² (teat) < tette < Gic *titta (G Zitze, OE tit) : swę̃te (to sweat)

A few instances of artificial lengthening of normally unstressed and short vowels in words of the same source may be given too.

B 2072* ciprees (cypress) < cypres < cypressus < (Gr. κυπάρισσος) : pees (peace)

25, 11 renovēle* (to renew) < renoveler < *renovellāre (< novus) : quarēle (quarrel) < querele < querella

2) ai, monophtongized over ei to \bar{e} before a single consonant, except l, r, or a nasal. A muta cum liquida did not shorten the monophthongized vowel: A 2178 $\bar{e}gle$ (eagle) < aigle < aquila, B 2367 $\bar{e}gre$ (eager) < aigre < \bar{a} cer, \bar{a} cris.

B 4512 countrefēte (to counterfeit) < contrefait < contrā + factum

: bēte (to beat)

C 447 ~: whēte (wheat)

¹ The open vowel seems to be consistent only in the infinitive of this verb. As a rule the gemination of r was preserved (p. 81). The length here was no doubt analogical from the normal form with \bar{r} (p. 76), corresponding to the ie of the stem-stressed CF forms. — The ModE form is a Latinism.

² This rime shows that this word cannot be derived from OE tit, as has been done in Stratm.-B's ME Dict., since, even if we reckon with the possibility of Kentish \bar{e} in swete, no lengthening of OE $i->\bar{e}$ took place in Ch.'s language.

B 1482 ę̃se (ease) < aaise < adjacens (Kört.)¹: plę̃se (to please) < plais- < placere

C59 greesse (grease) < graisse < *crass(i)a (< crassus)

: encrę̃sse ² (to increase) < encresce = OF encroistre < incrẽscere

A 2667 pees (peace) < pais < pax, $-\bar{a}cis$

: doutelees (doubtless)

B~1069~relę̃sse (to release) < relaisser < relaxãre

: cę̃sse (to cease)

B 3501 trēte (to treat) < traiter < tractāre

: gręte (great, pl.)

C 521 ~: mēte 3 (meat) < OE mete

That the monophthongization did not take place on English soil is clear from the fact that in native words this diphthong was preserved. The instances of monophthongization in OF are indeed early enough to justify the assumption that this process was completed by the time the influx of French words began. See Schw. § 223 and M-L § 90. The latter quotes a rime from Benoit de S. More: apres: pes (peace), showing that ai had become a monophthong. — Cp. also the contraction resulting in \bar{e} . See 3).

Before l, n the diphthong was preserved. The CF \tilde{l} , \tilde{n} had given an AF il, in, which arose later than the above monophthong.

For the unexpected diphthong in paleys (palace), trays (traces), wayte (to wait), and occasionally in eyse (ease), see under ai (Special cases).

3) e, the result of a contraction that had taken place chiefly in AF, where hiatus-vowels showed an early tendency to disappear. While in CF pretonic hiatus-e remained

¹ This etymology is not certain, but it seems preferable to the others suggested.

² The monophthong here is remarkable, since, as we shall see below $ei=\mathrm{CF}$ oi was generally preserved in ME. — The ss was frequently used to express the unvoiced s between two vowels.

 $^{^2}$ This is one of the rather rare rimes where an $\hat{\ell}$ in a French word rimes with $\bar{\ell} < \text{OE } e\text{-}.$

73

syllabic up to the 14th c. (Schw. § 271), it had disappeared in AF as early as the 12th c. — Examples:

III 254 mę̃ne (means) < me(i)en < mediānus : mę̃ne (to mean)

: clēne (clean)

A 482 · preeche, (to preach) < OF preechier < prædicāre : tēche (to teach)

B 4326 rēmes (realms) < reaume < *rēgālimen (< rex, rēgis) : drēmes (dreams)

D 604 seel (seal) < seël < sigillum (According to M.-L. Gr. § 41 with -ellum, as in vitellum): well (well)

E 1420* veel (veal) < veël < vitellus

: pykerēl¹ (pickerel), to pīk (pike) + erel (dimin.)

4) *ęst*

A 2602 arręst², sb. < arrest, to arrester < *arrestāre (< restāre)
: Ēst (East)

B 1945 beest ³ (beast) < beste < *besta (L bestia) : almēst (almost) : Ēst (East)

F 1369 fēste (feast) < feste < festa : arēste (to arrest)

B 2124 geeste 4 (feat) < geste < *gesta (< gero)
: leeste (least)

B 383 requēste 5, sb. < requeste < *requæsītum (< quæro) : heeste (hest) (< OE hæs + -t)

B 491* tempēste 6 < tempeste < *tempesta (L tempestas, -ātis) : Ēst (East)

The rimes point to a good deal of vacillation for the quantity of e/st. It has been shown above (p. 61) that the normal result should be a long vowel, length being found

¹ Artificial stress and length.

 $^{^{2}}$ But A 827 are ste, vb.: lĕste (to list) < OE lystan (Kent \it{e}).

 $^{^3}$ D 1034 best (beast): best (best).

⁴ LGW 87 geste : lĕste (to list).

⁵ F 1056 requeste: brĕste (to burst).

 $^{^6}$ Artificially stressed and lengthened. But B 1751 $honest: l \ddot{e}st$ (to list): $n \dot{e}st, \text{ sb.}$

probably even in AF. In point of fact, most rimes go to prove \bar{e} for Ch., and we have only to try to explain the exceptions. To begin with, it is natural that in normally unstressed syllables the vowel should be short (honest), so that such words could as easily rime with est as with est, the latter case showing the normal artificial lengthening analogical to that in words of the monosyllabic type. Thus a riming honést became parallel to beest. It is hardly probable, however, that this unstressed -est should have itself contributed to the creation of doublets like requeste. The preference gradually given to est must be ascribed to the tendency of substituting familiar and frequent soundgroups for those of rare occurrence. In beast, feast, which were among the earliest French loans, the length was easily definitely settled, owing to the popular character of these words. In course of time, when the influence of French pronunciation was decreasing, the common native est was the popular rendering of the French group, while est was still used and was probably favoured by educated people. The latter alternative was evidently preferred by Ch., but he did not despise the popular forms, when they were suitable in rime.

(β) Dissyllabic type. — Source:

ai, monophthongized before a single cons., except liquid or nasal.

E 25 ręsoun < raison < ratio, -onis

A 2001 tręson < traison < traditis, -onis

E 1692 trētee (treaty) < traite < tractatus

F 1197 heron < hairon < Gic *haig- in its later development had the vowel shortened. The monophthongization of ai is itself noteworthy. The first appearance of the word in ME fell in the 14th c. (NED), so that the word was very likely adopted after the AF monophthongization.

(γ) Trisyllabic type. — Source:

e, with a hiatus-i in the next syllable (p. 32).

C 775 prę̃cious < precius < pretiõsus.

B 1512 suspēcioun (suspicion¹) < suspecion < suspectio (Georges)

¹ Remodelled on L suspicio.

- (a) Monosyllabic type. Sources:
- 1) $e < \check{a}$ in stressed unchecked position, without a palatal preceding or following it.
- G 200 appeare (to appear) < apér-, to apareir < appārēre : heere (here): cleere (clear) < cler < clārus

B 1908 contree (country) < contree < *contrāta (< contrā) : free

B 453 iniquitee (iniquity) < iniquitee < iniquitas, -ātis : pitee (pity) < pite < pietas, -ātis

E 1692 tretee (treaty) < traite < tractātus

Some of these rimes contain words that in normal speech had a different stress, but in this case there is nevertheless the question of a normal, not an artificial lengthening of the vowel. How is this length to be explained?

To begin with, the stress was not as yet so concentrated upon one syllable as it is now, which of course facilitated to some extent the lengthening in question, but was not sufficient to make length prevalent in every unchecked syllable with a secondary stress. It was only in final position of polysyllabic words that a lengthening of e could arise. There a tendency towards shortening was counterbalanced by the coexistence of a perfectly stressless -e in native and borrowed words - which as a rule was still preserved in Ch.'s language (Part III). Thus e was here emphasized so as to be distinctly kept apart from -e with which it might otherwise have coalesced. The same tendency of lengthening a final vowel is still noticeable, not only in words of this type: pity, possibility etc., where the final sound is an e-like vowel with long rather than short quantity, but also in other cases 1: piətə (theatre), where the second a represents a decidedly longer vowel than the first; felou (fellow), which even when it appears as the vulgar feld has a final vowel of about the same length as

¹ I do not refer here to such spelling-pronunciations as [krōufei] beside [króufi], [sóulōu] etc.

 $\cdot \partial$ in piətə; velju (value), which now is pronounced with short as well as long final vowel (Jones § 360), etc. The occasional $j\bar{\sigma}$ (year) for $ji\partial$ is possible simply because $i\partial$ was made a rising diphthong, which again presupposes that in $i\partial$ ∂ was longer than i.

2) e = CF ie, (a) < e in unchecked position, (b) $< \check{a}$ preceded by palatal, (7) $< \bar{a}$ in $-\bar{a}rius^{1}$.

A 858* cheere (face, look) < CF ch(i)ere < *cara < Gr. κάρα : maneere (manner) < man(i)ere < *manuāria (< manus)

D 269* fee, sb. < fee = CF fie (ML feedum) : solempnytee

G 1224 greeve (to grieve) < griev-, inf. grever < *grevāre (< *grevis for gravis) : preeve (to prove)

B 1725 mateere (matter) < matiere < L māteria : grammere 2 = grammaire < L grammatica

E 1171 mayntēne (to maintain)³ < maintien-, inf. -tenir < manū tenēre

: green (green)

A 1325* mescheef (mischief) < meschief < minus *capum (for caput)

: theef (thief)

V 1042 releve (to relieve) < reliev-, inf. relever < relevāre : slēve (sleeve)

II 358 requēre 4 (to require) < requier-, inf. requerre < re + quærere

: chēre (cheer)

¹ The change -ārius > -ier is unexplained (Schw. § 56 A). For -arie, see p. 67; -aire, see ai.

² For the OF form, see Tobler, Rom. II 254. As the the ME form we have to assume a change of suffixes, since OF -aire gives ME -aire.

³ The ModE form is best explained as the result of a confusion with -teine < -tingere, as in attain, etc. See Sturmfels, Angl. 8, 251. — The ME \bar{e} naturally cannot originate in the end-stressed forms of the OF verb, as Wild, 214, wants to make likely. That would give ME \bar{e} . More possible is his second suggestion, according to which \bar{e} is due to a school-pron. of the Latin $t\bar{e}net$.

⁴ Cp. D 1052 requ \bar{e} re (< requerre) : th \bar{e} re. Se p. 71 Note 1.

B 1926* river(e) = CF riviere < rīpāria (< rīpa) : deer (deer)

B 3339 see (seat) < se (CF sie) < *sedem (A sēdes) : bee (to be)

C 685* taverner (innkeeper) < tavernier < *tabernārius (< taberna)

: yeer (year)

Likewise Ch. had undoubtedly \bar{e} in A 1598 fiers (fierce) < fiers < ferus. This word may owe its long vowel to the coexisting doublet $f\bar{e}r$ (< feru[m]), but it is hardly necessary to assume analogical influence here, since a vowel derived from an OF diphthong was regularly long.

The common suffix -er had of course normally \check{e} , the length being artificial in rimes. That we find \bar{e} (not \bar{e}) was due to French influence, since words containing this -er were constantly taken over.

3) \emptyset (ue) = CF ue < \emptyset .

In AF we find spellings oe, ue, u, e, of which u points to a falling diphthong (ue), e to a rising diphthong (ue) as the earlier stages of the vowel. But it should be noted that the spelling e may quite as well represent an English spelling of the θ , which in the vernacular became unrounded. It is not unlikely that even in AF e was substituted for θ through the influence of English. In any case, a falling diphthong must have been more natural here, since the less sonorous element (e) of the diphthong was more apt to be absorbed by a more sonorous vowel (u) than vice versa. For the same reason i was given up in ie (above) and ii (see iu). For a further discussion of this question, see Sturmf., Anglia 9,553, and Menger, 71.

C 260 pēple (people) < pueple < populus

G 968 preef(proof)<*pruev(e)2=CF prueve>*proba (<probāre)
: theef (thief)

¹ Although the loss of -e may originate, as in a good many other cases, in AF, we had better assume here influence from the -er < - \bar{a} rius. In fact, the influence of this suffix even extended to the rare -ere < OE -ere, usually appearing as - \bar{e} re in Ch.'s rimes. Note (although in Sir Thopas)

B 2103 dextrer (courser) < destrier < *dextrārius (< dextra)

[:] wonger (pillow)

² As to the loss of -e, see Part III.

l 470 prēve¹ (to prove) < pruev-, to prover < probāre : mēve¹ (to move) < muev-, to moveir < movēre

In $p\bar{e}ple$ the group pl did not bring about a shortening of the vowel, and it is quite natural to apply the same explanation here as in the case of table (p. 55), but in the absence of other instances containing a long vowel/pl, it is more advisable to hold to the explanation given for fierce, namely that an OF diphthong was rendered by a ME long vowel.

4) e in learned loans.

For many of these words we are of course at perfect liberty to assume direct Latin origin. The vowel would in any case be \bar{e} , since the ME spelling-pronunciation of the letter e was \bar{e} (p. 48). Most of the words belonging here do occur in OF, and even those that did not naturally joined analogous types of the OF loans.

F 43 diadēme* < diadēma (< Gr.) : seeme (to seem)

B 1451* diēte < diete < diæta < (Gr.)

: hete (heat) (\leq Kent. $\bar{e} = WS \bar{\omega}_1$)

V 194 mansuete (courteous) mansuete mansuetus

: swēte (sweet) : mēte (to meet)

E 31 poēte* < poete < poëta

: sweete (sweet)

16, 30 procede < proceder < procedere

: $m\bar{e}de$ (meed, reward) < OE $m\bar{e}d$

: spēde (to succeed) < OE spēdan

G 329 ~: drede 'dread' (WS \bar{x}_2)

B 223 prophēte < profete < profēta < (Gr. προφήτης)

: sweete (sweet)

B 1131 quiete < quiete < quietus

: heete³ (to promise)

Later on prove, move were reintroduced from the end-stressed forms of the verbs.

² The suggestion given by Behrens, Pauls Grdr. I, 970, that this word was influenced by the native *sweete*, seems questionable.

³ This vb. had apparently \bar{e} in all tenses generalized from the pret. $h\bar{e}t < OE$ $h\bar{e}t$, since we find this form riming also with B 1129 sweete

- 16, 11 spere (sphēre) < espere < sphæra < (Gr. σφαῖρα) : hēre (here)
- E 632 succeede < succed(er) < succēdere : drēde 'dread' (WS \bar{x}_2)
 - (β) Polysyllabic type. Source:e in hiatus. See p. 31.

C 901 creatour (creator) < creatur < creator, oris

B 3298 gaunt (giant) < geant, jaiant 1 < *gagante (L gigās, -antis)

A 2186 leoun (lion) < leon < leo, -onis

The last two words had already the doublets giant. lion (Schw. § 84 A) in OF, preserved in ModE. — In creator a shifting of stress has taken place, according to Metzger, 28, by a direct imitation of Latin, but more likely through the influence of create, which I have found in Ch. only in the past pple creat (16, 2 that creat were — — —). This influence was evidently of a later date, since Hart (Jesp., 76) still transcribes krėtiur. Hart's e, instead of i, was probably due to the monophthongization of ea.

 \check{e} .

Sources:

1) e before any cons. group, whether original or not, except st (see p. 73). For fiers, peple, see pp. 77, 78.

The number of syllables is immaterial. Rimes:

E 441 amende < amender < ēmendāre

: wende, pret. of OE wenan (to believe)

⁽sweet). Of course both instances might be explained as Kentish \bar{e} -forms, but the Kentish \bar{e} for WS \bar{w} is rather exceptional in Ch. Generally speaking, the WS — or rather Saxon Patois, since in Ch. a word like sheep, riming with \bar{e} and \bar{e} in the same way as $d\bar{w}d$ (WS \bar{w}_2), presupposes *sc \bar{w} p (\bar{w}_2), not sc \bar{e} ap (cp. Bülbr. § 153 A) — had its \bar{w} -vowels regularly continuated in Ch.'s language, and the rimes show that there cannot have been any closening influence of a following dental in his dialect

¹ The result of contraction would, strictly speaking, give ME $\bar{\ell}$, but the position in hiatus was no doubt decisive for the quality of the vowel.

D 1200 chalenge < CF chalenger 1 < *calumniāre (L calumniāri) : alenge (miserable) < OE ælenge

F 224 comprehender < comprehender < comprehendere : ende, sb.

C 212 converte² < convertir < *convertire (L convertere) : herte (heart)

B 1822 deserve < deservir < deservire

: sterve (to starve)

A 3173 reherse (to rehearse) < rehercier, to herce < hirpex, -icis

: werse (worse)

Other instances, not controllable by rimes, are:

A 666 gérland (garland) < gerlande (and garlande) < to Gic *wir- (OE wīr 'wire')

B 2052 pércing³ (piercing) < percier < *peritiāre

A 478 pérsoun (parson) < persun < persona

2) e before double consonant, chiefly in learned word.

The gemination was preserved in ME, and the preceding vowel became short. — On e/dz, see p. 43.

B 3162 celle < celle < cella

: telle (to tell)

D 154 dette (debt) < dette < dēbita

: lette (to hinder)

D 129 ~: sette (to set)

¹ Beside chalonger. The e-form came perhaps from the end-stressed forms. Ell. had also chalange (F 1324, etc.), for which we find AF chalanger (Moisy).

² As to the combination e/r + cons, we observe that many of the rimes Ch. used unscrupulously are now impossible. These rimes were of course correct, and surprising is only the later discrepancy, some words — chiefly French — preserving the e, others—chiefly native—developing an a before r. This must be interpreted in such way that the natural tendency was towards a, but that this tendency was counteracted by a refined pronunciation, based on French or on the orthography. The case is one of class dialect, as Wyld calls it.

The \bar{e} presupposed by the ModE form cannot be proved for Ch. Cp. fiers (fierce), p. 77, where \bar{e} was from ie. — The etymology given above seems to me more attractive than that of *pertusiāre (< pertundere), especially in view of the Picardian percher, where ch presupposes a $t\underline{i}$ (or $k\underline{i}$).

A 3467 dresse (to direct) < CF drecier < *dīrectiāre (< dīrectus) : gesse (to guess)

A 2751 expelle < espeller (later expeller) < expellere : swelle, inf. — Cp. the regular IV 294 repēled (: sēled 'sealed')

B 2139 expresse < expresser < *expressāre (< presso) : lesse (less) < OE læssa

E 593* gentillesse < gentillesse 1, and gentilise < *gentīlitia (< gentīlis)

: countesse < comitissa (< comes, -itis)

A 919 ~ : distresse < destresse 1, destrece < *dēstrictia (<dēstrictus)

10,71 intresse (interest) < interesse (NED) < interesse : rightwisnesse : sikernesse

E 394* markysesse (marchioness) < marquis + esse : rudenesse < rude + OE -nesse

A 82 presse < presser < pressare : gesse (to guess)

F 5 rebelle < rebeller < rebellare : telle (to tell)

A 1447 werre (war) < *werre = CF guerre < Gic (OHG) wërra : derre (dearer) < OE deorra

Of course it is not possible to refer all these words to one group of exceptional development, since we find here not only learned, but also some quite popular words. As to the learned words it seems justifiable to believe that OF really had gemination where the Latin spelling had double consonant². In any case, we may safely assume that when such OF words came over into ME with the Latin spelling retained, they were bound to receive a spelling-pron. on account of their chiefly literary use.

The popular words, however, should have lost their gemination and got a long vowel in ME with the exception

¹ The OF -esse < L -issa < Gr -ισσα seems here to have intruded into words where it did not belong. The regular development would have given ME -ise, and ese.

² See Faulde, ZRPh IV 542.

⁶ Ruben Nojd.

of rr, which was preserved up to the 17th c. (Grdr. d. Rom. Phil. I 746¹. Thus werre is regular. Most of the other rimes contain ss. Of these those containing the suffix -esse naturally have a short vowel. The reason is the same as for -est (p. 73). That the short vowel was not confined to a normally unstressed syllable must be due to the fact that before a medial unvoiced s the vernacular had only a short vowel. Thus in popular words esse was preferred to esse. Cp. cease (p. 70). We have seen that in the case of passe doublets existed in the poet's language, passe being more popular (p. 66).

3) el (L -ālis, -ellus, -illus).

The quantity of this suffix was undoubtedly short in natural language. In rimes its quantity was rather ambiguous, so a detailed discussion of this point seems necessary.

Examples:

A 540* catel (cattle) < catel ² < capitāle

: wel (well)

B 4439* condicioneel < condicionel < condicionalis

: deel, sb. \leq OE dæl (part)

D 2002 cruel < cruel < *crūdālis (L crūdēlis)

: fel2 (fierce) < fel < *fello, ōnis (< fell (gall)?,

see NED felon)

D 1869* effectueel < effectuel < *effectualis (Cp. < effec-

tuōsus)

: weel (well)

HF 1021 hostel < hostel < hospitālis

: wel (well)

A 415* naturel < naturel < nāturālis

: deel, sb.

F 115 ~: weel (well)

LGW 376 ~ : cruel, adj.

¹ Cp. Eickershoff: Über die Verdoppelung der Konsonanten im Altnormannischen (Archiv für d. St. d. neuren Spr. u. Lit. LXXV pp. 113, 285). He there arrives at the conclusion (p. 336) that in ONorm. ll, rr, mm, nn, really indicated a geminated cons. Being based only on the double spellings, his conclusions are, however, not wholly reliable.

² The CF doublet resulted in ModE chattel.

H 235* textuel (learned) \leq textuel \leq *textualis (\leq textus) : deel, sb.

H 315 ~: weel (well)

The question becomes complicated because of the scarcity of conclusive rimes. The most common of these rimewords, wel (well), rimes with \bar{e} D 604: seel (seal), \bar{e} A 926: wheel, sb., \bar{e} G 1283: fel < OE feoll (fell).

That this word was so changeable was due to the fact that the original short vowel was partly preserved, partly, owing to the frequently unstressed position of the word giving rise to the combination short $e + short \ l$ (Cp. was, p. 59), lengthened in emphatic speech, consequently also in rimes. To account for $w\bar{e}l$ we have to fall back upon an OE form $w\bar{e}l$, assumed also by Bülbring (§ 284), but not given in the OE dictionaries. This form is apparently presupposed also by Orrm's wel, berides $well < OE \ wel$.

Rimes with wel are therefore inconclusive. If we were to make a conjecture, however, on the basis of the spelling of the Ell. MS, we should arrive at the conclusion that in dissyllabic words $-\bar{e}l$ was preferred, whereas in polysyllabic words $-eel = \bar{e}l$ was the regular form². Such being the chase, the explanation is easily found in the fact that -el was a rather familiar native suffix in dissyllabic words and that a fusion of foreign and native -el had taken place. In polysyllabic words the secondary stress worked to preserve the possibility of lengthening. — This does not mean, however, that the same distinction was made in normal speech. What has been said refers to the conditions in rime.

The L - $\bar{a}lis$ ought to have given ME - $\bar{e}l$ (p. 76). We have found that Ch.'s rimes point unanimously to - $\bar{e}l$, when the vowel was long. The question arises whether the open

¹ Anglia, 542, tenB writes 'Zur Zeit, wo sheld zu sheld gedehnt wurde, entstand auch $w\bar{e}l$ aus wcl'. That seems rather unlikely. We should then expect lengthening before ll, nn, etc. in general.

 $^{^2}$ Cp. LGW 376 naturel:cruel where such a partition is impossible and where, in fact, $\tilde{\varrho}$ and \tilde{e} were possible.

quality was produced in AF or in ME. That ℓl arose in AF might seem unlikely in view of the fact that the confusion existing for ℓ and ℓ before ℓ in AF was found also before ℓ , whereas in ME ℓr and ℓr were clearly distinguished. It could therefore be tempting to assume that ℓl was generalized from the short unstressed vowel in normal speech, but even in this case there would be a contrast between $-\ell l$ — $-\ell r$, the latter suffix ($< \bar{a}rius$) riming consistently with ℓr . The discrepancy between $-\ell l$ — ℓr is satisfactorily accounted for, when we learn that in AF the coalescence of ℓr , ℓr into ℓr was of a later date than that of ℓr , ℓr into ℓr was of a later date than that of ℓr , ℓr into ℓr was been too late to be noticeable in the ME loan-words.

4) -et < ittum

This suffix too had naturally \check{e} in ordinary pronunciation. It is only remarkable that even in rimes, where all unchecked syllables, stressed or unstressed, generally had a long vowel, the short quantity prevailed, as we find from

G 1308 crosselet¹ (crucible) < crosel + et < ittum : set

C 392 pulpet² (pulpit) < pulpitr(e) < pulpitum : yset (pa. p. of settan)

The short quantity cannot be ascribed to the close character of the OF e, as opposed to e in -el < -ellum, etc., because we know that length has asserted itself in ModE neat (< nitidus) as well as in beak (< bec). The explanation is no doubt the same as in the case of -el in catel, etc. that is, we have to do with the analogy of a common native suffix -el, et, resp.

¹ It cannot be ascertained whether G 1277 crosselet: Iet (contrivance) < jet, to jeter had short vowel or not. For the latter word we expect \bar{e} .

² With suffix-change in ME.

4) e in unchecked syllable of polysyllabic words, except such as had length owing to special conditions (pp. 28, 31, 32).

III 1753 élement < element < elementum

A 1996 félonye (crime) < felonie, to felon (See fel, p. 82.)

F 1563 héritage < heritage < *hērētāticum (< hērēs)

A 3141 légend(e) < legende < legenda (< lego)

B 3451 lépart (leopard) < leopard (with u absorbed by p) < leopardus

B 144 méssagé < message < *missāticum (< mitto)

E 470 présent, adj. < present < præsens, -entis

A 701 rélik (relic) < relique < reliquiæ

D 1509 rénably (reasonably) < resnable, rednable ² < rationābilis

B 4520 tréchery(e) < CF trecherie, to trechier (F tricher) < *triccare (L trīcāri)

HF 1277 trégetour (juggler) < tresgettur < *trajectātor (< jacio)

B 2519 vénym (venom) < venim < *venīmen (L venēnum)

Here we may place cases like

A 3067 serye (argument) < serie < L series : merye, pl. (merry)

V 1786 tregédye³ < tragedie < tragoedia (< Gr.) : comédye < comedie < cōmoedia (< Gr.)

B 3974 ~ : remédie < remedie (= CF remeide) < remedium

The last rime-word appears usually as rémedie: 5, 140 drye (dry),: V 916 jupartie,: B 1617 folye. This stress was indeed a priori to be expected. Cp. -arie, -orie, studie, etc. The stress presupposed above for this word and its rimes may be due to Latin influence.

¹ The ss simply indicated voiceless [s], not a long s.

² This may be from resdnable < res(o)nable. Thus no trace was left of the length derived from the original diphthong in raisonable.

³ Ell. has *tragedie*, which was probably Ch.'s form. *Tregedie* is explained by Zachrisson, Engl. St. 52, 316, as a phonetic doublet in late ME or, which seems decidedly preferable, as a phonetic doublet arisen in French.

i.

Spelling.

In Ell. we find y for i (= \tilde{i}) before or after m, n, u, w, where an i would have made the reading difficult. (Cp. o for u in the same environment). — In final position y was consistently used. The pronoun I was written in the same way as to-day. — In words containing $\tilde{i} < AF i + in = CF \tilde{n}$ with the traditional gn preserved (as in digne, resigne), ig may be said to have represented \tilde{i} . — Otherwise i and j were used more or less interchangeably for \tilde{i} and \tilde{i} .

ī.

- (a) Monosyllabic type. Source:
- i in unchecked position. As to ible, ist, see p.
 Examples¹:

E 1249 appetyt² < apetit < appetitus

: delīt < delit < *dēlectus (< dīlectus)

D 624 ~ : whit (white)

G 298 baptīse 3 < baptīsier < baptīzāre (< Gr.)

: despise < despis-, inf. despire < despicere.

B 4505* benefice < beneficium

: nyce (foolish) < nice < nescius

¹ From the ME point of view it would be little profitable to group the examples according to the seven sources traceable for OF *i* (Schw. § 208). The decisive factor in this case is simply the checked or unchecked position of *i*.

² Here the length was still preserved by the time *i* was made a diphthong. That was hardly due to spelling-pron. We have rather to assume that the chief stress of this word lay on the final syllable, the prefix having only secondary stress. See p. 12.

³ The stress was here on the ending according to the general tendency of verbs. — Cp. the unstressed *ice* in *cheryce* (to cherish) etc., which in OF was nothing but a conjugational infix and never received stress in ME, except in rime, as B 3710 *cheryce*: nycc. When not in rime, this suffix generally appears as *i(s)she*, occasionally *isse*, in Ell.

 \bar{i} 87

A 1718* caytyves (wretches) < caitif, -ive (F chétif) < *cactīvus¹ : lyves, sb.

B 3693 chastīse ² = CF chastier < castigare : devyse (to relate) < deviser < *dīvīsāre (< dīvīsus).

B 2044* comyn³ (cummin) < cumin < cuminum (< Gr.) : fyn (fine) < fin < *finus (for finītus)

A 2215 digne 4 < digne (ign = \bar{i} n) = CF digne (gn = \tilde{i}) < dignus : benigne < benignus

A 663 diocīse ⁵ < diocise < *diocēsis, dioecēsis (< Gr.) : gïse (guise) < CF guise < Gic *wīsa (OE wīse).

E 936 endīte (to write) < endit(i)er < *indictāre (< dictus) : acquīte (to acquit) < aquit(t)er < *acquitāre (< quiētus)

4, 289* emperīce⁶ (empress) < emperarice < imperātrix, īcis : chevīse (to accomplish) < chevis-, to chevir <*capīre, (L capere) to capio

B 666* evangīles < evangil < evangelium (< Gr.) : whīles

D 488 frye < frire < frigere (to roast) : Ialousie < jalousie, to jalous < *zēlōsus (< zēlus)

B 546 isle < isle < insula

: while

B 664* Iustīse < justice < justitia

: avyse (to consider) < aviser < *advisāre (< ad + vīsus)

¹ A contamination of *coactivus + captivus. This origin is suggested by Körting (captīvus).

² -ise was apparently analogical from ise (Gr. ίζειν) in baptise, etc.

³ This word cannot very well be regarded as a continuation of OE cymen (< cumīnum). In the first place the OE word would have given i, not ii, in Ch. Further, the second vowel does not agree with the OE form. The lengthening of a short vowel in rime was, moreover, confined to the French loan-words. Thus we have evidently to do with French origin here as well as in the case of so many other culinary terms.

⁴ Cp. resigne, vyne with other rimes than self-rimes.

ModE diocese (F diocese) is refashioned on the Greek form. — As a learned word it may have had i also in normal pron.

⁶ The form *emperesse* is not proved by any rime, and does not occur in Ell. (Cp. Skeats Ed. F 1048.)

Iuwīse 1 (justice) < juise < jūdicīum A 1740 : vīce, sb. licorys < lycoris (F liquerice) < liquiritia (< Gr.) A 3690* : devys (devise) B 363* malīce < malice < malitia : vvce < vice 2 < vitium F 525 ~ : nvce (foolish) G 1381 mercv < merci < merces -ēdis $: s\bar{y} < OE \text{ seah } (< s\bar{e}on)$ LGW 960 navye (navy) < navie⁸ < nāvigium : hye (to hasten) < OE higian parvys (space before a church) < parevis < paradīsum A 309 (Cp. F 911 paradys: prys'price'. — (For v in parvis, see Hatzf.-D. § 358.) : wys (wise) B 780 resigne < resigner < resignāre (ī): digne 1,80* resīne: medicīne < medicīna B 1382* servise < servise < servitium : devise, vb. C 451* vyne (vine) < vigne < vinea : famyne < famyne < *famina (< fames)

C 905* warīce 4 (to cure) < *waris-, CF guarir < Gic *warjan : avarīce < avarice < avaritia

F 514* ypocryte < hypocrite < hypocrita (< Gr.) : byte (to bite)

D 1742 yvory ⁵ (ivory) < ivorie = CF ivoire < eboreum : fetisly (neatly) < fetis < factīcius

The list given above contains numerous polysyllabic words, most of which were normally stressed on the initial

¹ The voiced [z] shows that a change of suffixes has taken place, the [z] belonging regularly to [-ize] < -itium, whereas -icium gave [-ise].

The [s] and the -e point to a learned loan. Malice, too, may be a later adoption, or it is due to the confusion of -itia and -icia in OF.

³ NED and Skeat unnecessarily assume the starred form $*n\bar{a}via$, which, moreover, should have given OF *nage.

⁴ See p. 86 note 3.

⁵ This form is exceptional. A regular rime is 3, 946 yvorie: memorie.

syllable. Those words had in everyday speech i. Now exception must be made for the words ending in i, -ie. The length of final i is connected with the English tendency of lengthening final vowels (p. 75). There were two suffixes -ie in ME, which may be exemplified by memorie and jalousie, of which the first was perfectly unstressed and the second had a strong secondary stress. This was entirely regular with regard to the accentuation of the corresponding AF words. The stressless -ie had naturally a short yowel. or it might be called a consonantic glide, since Ch.'s metre never requires a syllabic value for this i. In -ie, again, length was likely to arise, evidently as a contrast to -ie. The lengthening is of the same type as that of a hiatusvowel, although in the present case the stress was only secondary. When the loss of -e was completed 1, a shortening was made easier, but was not consistently carried through. Under conditions, which are difficult to determine, final i is still occasionally pronounced rather long (p. 75).

In a number of words of learned character the native tendency towards shortening may have been counter-acted by French influence, and in Ch.'s poetry this influence was predominant, so that in reading his verse we have to pronounce long vowels in all these rimes. The same phenomenon may be observed also for other unstressed vowels when occurring in rime.

2) ible

A 437* bible < bible < Gr. βιβλος

: digestible < digestible < dīgestibilis

D 688* ~: impossible < impossible < impossibilis

D 1846* ~ : penyble < penible < *penibilis (< poena)

Of course the suffix -ible, as well as -able, was normally unstressed and had a short vowel. The artificial stress again caused an artificial lengthening. As to the explanation of this length, which is analogous to that of -able, see p. 34.

¹ That -c was beginning to fall in the normal pronunciation of polysyllables even in Ch.'s time will be made likely in a following chapter (Part III).

3) *ist*

B 2133* evangelist < evangeliste < evangelista (< Gr.) : Crīst (Christ)

This single rime does not tell us much about the quantity of i/st. But the almost consistent lengthening of other consonants before st makes $\bar{\imath}$ a priori most probable. The ModE [ai] in Christ points to ME $\bar{\imath}$, but it is not very likely that this word had $\bar{\imath}$ even in OE, although Pogatscher, 90, makes such an assumption, referring to $\bar{\imath}$ in L Christus. As regards OE we have rather to assume sound-substitution— as in the case of $sc\bar{\imath}le < L$ $sch\bar{\imath}la$ — and before st OE required $\bar{\imath}$. But we need not doubt that the French influence, which naturally was prevalent among the ME clergy, had refashioned the pronunciation of this word long before Ch.'s time, so his vowel was undoubtedly $\bar{\imath}$.— The French influence on the pronunciation of biblical names is seen also in Jesus (with $d\bar{\imath}$), so it is only natural that Crist should be exposed to the same influence.

(β) Polysyllabic type: $\bar{\imath}$ in hiatus.

Since i- (as well as u-) was not subject to lengthening we do not expect to find an i in other words than those of the monosyllabic type. We have already mentioned the stressed i in hiatus (p. 31), as in F 43 diadem, A 4392 riot, etc. If i did occur in other polysyllables, it was due to spelling-pron. It has been pointed out that the difference between long and short vowels was not marked, as it is to-day, also by a qualitative differentiation (face—preface, vice—vicious, etc.). When, for instance, an Englishman nowadays pronounces [ai] in digest(ion), he wants to emphasize that the word contains the prefix di-, not de-. Of course such a precaution was superfluous in ME, where di gave quite as accurate an idea of the spelling as di could ever give.

Thus it cannot be taken for granted that Ch. had $\bar{\imath}$ in I 682 final, D 1595 libel, D 855 licence, A 961 tiraunt (tyrant), and others, where ModE has [ai]. We have rather to assume that by the time $\bar{\imath}$ ceased to be the name of the letter i, that is when $\bar{\imath}$ was diphthongized, these learned

words were pronounced with a diphthong by educated people. Before that time — consequently also in Ch.'s language — these words had probably *i*, according to the natural tendency of dissyllabic words (p. 94).

Special cases.

A 2178 deduȳt (pleasure) < deduit < *dēdūctum (L dēductus) : whȳt (white).

As a rule OF $\ddot{u}i$ gave ME iu, in fruit, etc., where i is merely traditional. Here, therefore, we have an example of a word taken over later than the transition in the 12th c. of OF $\ddot{u}i < \ddot{u}i$ (Schw. § 231), or, at any rate, an occasional use of the CF form 1. The \ddot{u} preceding the i may have been a consonantic u, or a vocalic u, although not necessary for the metre.

A 1237 $d\bar{y}s$ (dice) < *di(s), de, CF de < datum : paradys, sb. — See pl 88, parvys.

A 4385* ~: prentys < apprentis < *apprentifs (< apprehēndo + īvus)

It is noteworthy that Ell. usually spells dees, thus using the regular form of early ME. For Ch. $\bar{\imath}$ is ascertained, and the abscence of rimes with $\bar{e}s$ makes dees at least doubtful.

As to the origin of the mysterious *i*, nothing positive can be said. By way of conjecture, one might, however, suggest the possibility of influence from *jeupardi*, due to a natural association between these two gambling terms. In AF *jeupardi*² might even have come to mean 'game with dice'.

 $^{^1}$ In fact, Gower, in his AF Confess. (III 371), has the rime deduit : fruit (ii).

² In ME, especially Ch., we find an -e consistently added to the original *juparti*, perhaps due to partie. Thus we find for *Iuparti* (jeopardy), < jocus partitus, F 1496 *Iupartie*: crie (to cry).

B 4027 *phisīk* 1 < *phisic (= CF phisique) < physica (< Gr.) : sīk (sick) A 412 ~ : līk (like)

There can be no doubt that this rime should be pronounced with long vowels. Nevertheless Wild, 140, assumes $\tilde{\imath}$ in sik. Such a rime would be entirely out of keeping with the poet's habitual procedure of treating a riming syllable as a monosyllable, where an unchecked vowel became long. Remarkable is only $\tilde{\imath}$ in sik, which has been explained by Luick, Gr. § 282, as the result of the following development in some WS Patois seoc>*sec> syc> sic.—

The regular vowel occurs in A 18 seke: seke (to seek; sick). E 2335 plit (plight) < plit (Gower), for *pleit = CF ploit < *pli-

citus (< plicāre) : appetyt, sb.

This etymology, however, seems rather questionable. Instead, we have rather to do here with OE pliht in AF appearance, where the spirant would naturally drop. Like truce the word apparently had its place among the law terms of the French administration.

E 2011 *pyketh* (to peep) < piquer (to prick, pierce) — Kört., pik-: lyketh (to like)

III 60 $p\bar{y}ke$: syke (to sigh): syke (sick), pl.

There existed, to be sure, an OE pician, pican but the lack of instances between the 9th and the 14th c. make OF origin preferable. The long vowel, too, does not oppose such a view. On the other hand, ModE pick requires a short ME vowel, and for that form OE pician may be assumed as a proper substrate, although a differentiation of pike and picke, based on difference in meaning, could be derived from the French loan-word itself, picke being due to a later shortening.

¹ The loss of -e is found also in F 218 magyk: lyk, whereas D 187 praktike: like (to like) represents a CentralF form.

D 2089 squyre (squire) < escuier < scūtārius (< scūtum) : Īre < ire < īra.

The vowel expected is \tilde{c} . The i must be due to the preservation of i in ie in intervocalic position, or perhaps to CF influence, and a shifting of the stress from $i\acute{e} < ie$ in ME. — The regular form is found in A 79 squyer: bacheler which, indeed, is the normal spelling in Ell.

D 1331 $st\bar{y}ves$ (stews, brother) < estuve, to estuver < *extūbāre 1, for *extūfāre (< Gr. τῦφος) : lȳves (lives)

The usual form of this word is stue, with iu (below). The forms with $\bar{\imath}$ are exceedingly scarce, and they might possibly be ascribed to the influence of the native sty (a filthy hovel), found for instance in Milton's Comus 77. This word should be traced back to OE stig (or Scand. st\bar{\imath}a), not AS stigu, given in the Cent. D. — Wild, 222, points to the OF doublets ewe, eve (< aqua) and suggests the same explanation for styves. But cp. p. 125.

B 2046 *trye* (tried, choice) < trié, to trier < *trītāre (< terere) : spicerye (spices) < (e)spice (speciës) + erie (See Hatzf.-D. § 63.)

We have here to do with another instance of stress-shifting, giving a stressed $\bar{\imath}$, instead of $\bar{\imath}$, in ME. Formally more attractive is the assumption that the word is identical with OF trie (choice), sb., but one would rather find a pa. p. than a noun used as an adjective. Cp., however, also choice, used as an adjective even in ME.

ĭ.

Sources:

1) i before a cons. group, including $d\bar{z}$, tf, no matter what the number of syllables was. — On -ible, -ist, see pp. 89, 90. The only rime seems to be

¹ The b is explained as due to tubus (used in the baths). See Kört. *extūfo.

A 2812 divinistre (theologian) < divin < dīvīnus + istre 1 (for iste < ista)

: registre, sb. < registre < *registrum (L regestum).
Other words with i:

E 1713 instrument < instrument < instrumentum

A 2524 minstralsye < ministralsie, to ministral (p. 57)

B 3839 prince < prince < princeps, -ipis

A 1235 victorie < victorie < victoria

2) *i* in open syllable of polysyllabic words. — There were probably no exceptions to this rule (cp. p. 90), with the exception of the hiatus-*i*.

A 2902 citee (city) < cite < cīvitas, -ātis

B 1443 díner (dinner) < diner < *disjūnāre (< jējūno). See Kört., *disjūno.

A 3520 hídous (hideous) < hidous = CF hideus < hide (< hispidus) + eus < -ōsus (In ModE with altered suffix.)

C 452 lícour (liquor) < licour = CF liquor < liquor, -ōris

F 1561 phílosophre < philosophe < philosophus + re 3

HF 717 privee (secret) < prive < privātus

A 477 religioun < religion = CF religion < religio, ōnis

F 898 ríver < riviere < *rīpāria (< rīpa)

3, 765 tributary < tributaire < trībūtārius

D 1138 víleinye (villainy) < vilein < *villanus (< villa) + ie < īa

E 2045 ⁴ wíket (wicket-gate) < viquet (Moisy, v for w) = CF guischet (< Gic) : clíket (latch) < AF < Pic. cliquet (See Kört.,

klinka.)

 $^{^{1}}$ The r is supposed to come from words like *ministre*, where r was etymological.

² A 4361 quit: yit (yet) is the pa. p. of quite (to requite) and has thus short vowel in the same way as analogous verbs of native origin: hīd — hīde, etc. It should be noted that the short vowel has been partly generalized: cp. ModE (ac)quit — requite. Ch. has still i in the present tense D 1600 acquīte: līte, A 3863 quīte: līte.

 $^{^3}$ The suffix -re may have been added on the analogy of words like ministre.

⁴ This is one of Ch.'s exceptional dissyllabic rimes. Elsewhere, G 1308 crosselet: set (p. 84), etc., -ĕt is sufficient for a rime.

0.

Spelling.

The long vowel, $\bar{\varrho}$ or $\bar{\varrho}$, is in Ell. expressed by o or oo, the latter chiefly used in closed syllables and almost consistently before st. The short vowel is written o.

ē.

(a) Monosyllabic type.

Sources:

1) $\varrho < au$. For poor, see p. 98.

D 447 $ch\bar{q}se^1$ (thing) < CF chose < causa

: rose (rose)

G 1369 closs (close) < clos < clausus

: loos (praise) < los < laus, laudis — Cp. laude (p. 121)

B 4521 ~ : toos (toes)

F 165 close, vb. < close, inf. clore < claudere

: glose (comment) < glose < glosa

F 123 soore (to soar) < (es)sorer < *exaurāre (< aura)

: evermoore

D 2159 stoor, (store) < estor < staurum

: boor (boar) < OE bar

B 2128 suppose < supposer, to poser 2 < pausare

: prose < prose < prosa

E 2032 ~: nõse

E 1270 tresoor < tresor < thēsaurus (< Gr.)

: hoor (hoar)

2) o in originally checked position. This o had become free — after the diphthongization of Folk-L o — through the simplification of a double consonant, or through the loss of a consonant. On $\bar{\varrho}/tf$, see p. 45. For fool, see p. 98.

¹ This is only a nonce-form of the French word. — As to the native rime-words to these loans with $\bar{\varrho}$, we have to observe that in closed syllable the native vowel is OE \bar{a} , in open syllable also OE o-, i. e. a complete adaptation of the OF $\bar{\varrho}$ to the native $\bar{\varrho}$, no matter if OE \bar{a} and o- had coalesced or not in Ch.'s language. Cp. $\bar{\varrho}$ (p. 72 Note 2).

² In OF pausāre had come to be confused with some forms (posui, positum) of ponere (NED).

A 1999 clǫ̃ke (cloak) < cloque = CF cloche < *clocca ¹ (Celtic?, see M-L.)

: smōke, sb.

A 328 cōte (coat) < cote < Gic *kotta (cloth) = OHG chossa (Kört.)

: (by) rote 2 (by heart) < rote < Celtic rotta (fiddle)

B 4026 ~: throte (throat)

3, 376 mǫt (mote)³ < mǫt < *mottum, beside mọt < *muttum
. (< muttīre 'to murmur')

: hot (hot)

A 236 r̄ote (fiddle) < rote < Celtic rotta (Kört.). Cp. A 328 (above).

: note (note) < note < nota

3) ϱ in learned words, with a L $\bar{\varrho}$ or $\check{\varrho}$ in open syllable.

I 45 glǫse < glose < glosa (< Gr.)

: prose < prose < prosa

G 808 vitriǫle < vitriole < vitreolus (< vitrum) : cole (coal)

4) oble

A 60, 214 etc. noble < noble < noblis

There are no rimes, but the parallel cases of $-\bar{a}ble$, $-\bar{\imath}ble$ make a long vowel certain. The learned character of this word even in OF makes $\bar{\varrho}$ (not $\bar{\varrho}$) undisputable in ME. ModE. too, points to ME $\bar{\varrho}$.

5) *ōst*

D 922 coost (coast) < coste 4 < costa : moost (most)

This word has also given Engl. clock, but one cannot suppose that this word too came from French, as is done by Skeat. The loss of the gemination is a distinctively French trait, so clock must have got into ME in some other way. — The relation to OE clucge (clock) is obscure.

² Considering the etymological difficulties involved in a derivation from L rupta, which would give ME \tilde{u} , I prefer to identify the word with the musical term in A 236, which is quite as easy to connect with the expression in question.

³ NED mote ³ (a note of a horn or a bugle).

⁴ The -e was dropped in AF. See p. 59 Note.

H 56 hoost (host) < hoste 1 < hospes, -itis

: goost (ghost)

F 696 : woost (knowest)

B 401 : boost (boast) < bost (Skeat) < Scand. bausta (to

act with violence)

A 206 roost (roast) < rost(e), to rostir (F rôtir) < Gic *raustjan : goost (ghost)

For this $\bar{\varrho}st^2$, cp. $\bar{a}st$, $\bar{\varrho}st$, $\bar{\imath}st$.

(β) Trisyllabic types, with length due to an i in hiatus. See above, p. 32.

D 2190 odious < odious < odiosus

Special cases 3.

The following rime shows a parallel to the $-\bar{a}l - -\bar{a}le(s)$ referred to above (p. 56).

A 880 Amazǫ̃nes < amasone (Godefr.) < amāson (< Gr.) : nǫ̃nes (nonce), to OE ān (one)

The next rime shows an artificial lengthening of unstressed o before a final single consonant of the type that is particularly common among riming proper names.

B 3169 exametrǫ̃n (hexameter) < Gr. εξάμετρον ; oon 'one'

B 432 krǫ̃ne (crone) < MDu kronie (an old sheep) : allǫ̃ne (alone): everychǫ̃ne (everyone)

This word is generally derived from Picardian carone (F charogne), which is not acceptable as a direct source. It is true that one and compounds is not wholly conclusive as a rime-word, since we find it also in a number of rimes

¹ The -e was dropped in AF. See Part III.

² A 214 cost: post (pillar) contains, as the short vowel goes to prove, OE post. The ModE vowel is due to confusion with post < poste (< posita), introduced in the 16th c.

³ In these words French mediation is precluded, the vowel being \bar{o} or \bar{u} in OF words of this type (pp. 99, 104).

98 ~ ~

where $\bar{\rho}$ is required. In this case, however, the ModE pron, makes it sure that the rime was correct. — Cp. p. 99. — For further discussion, see Part III.

 \bar{o} .

We have seen that the unchecked OF o generally passed into ME $\bar{\varrho}$, so that a ME o in French loanwords should, strictly speaking, not have existed at all. In fact, the instances that do occur are irregular and need a special explanation.

1) fool, poore.

B 4105 fool 2 < fol < follis (wind-bag)

: tool

I 635 folis: scole is: tolis (tools)

D 1063 poore < povre < pauper

: oore (ore)

V 43 ~ : rōre (upror) < OE *hrōre = OS hrōra, related to OE hrōr (stirring)

D 1936 ~: foore (track, path) (OE for)

The exceptional $\bar{0}$ in these words has been explained, apparently with good reason, as due to the adjacent labial consonants f - l, p - v.

The dropping of v before r is not phonetically necessary—cp. cover—nor is this a case of a vocalized v as in hauk < heafoc, since that would give ME pour with a diph-

¹ The $\bar{\varrho}$: $\bar{\varrho}$ -rimes in Ch. have been collected by E. Bowen, Engl. St. 20, 343. His list contains also a number of French words that he finds vacillating in their vocalic quality. These words may be reduced to a few proper names, where irregularity is not surprising. The rest have all ϱ — $disp\bar{\varrho}ne$, $pers\bar{\varrho}ne$, $tr\bar{\varrho}ne$ (see p. 99) — and V 43 pore: sore D 1936 pore: lore read in reality $r\bar{\varrho}ne$, $f\bar{\varrho}ne$ resp. (above). — Of the native vacillating words $d\bar{\varrho}ne$ forms part of the majority of the irregular rimes. Perhaps the periphrastic use of this verb, in Ch. frequent in affirmative clauses, gave rise to a form $d\bar{\varrho}ne$ (+ infin.) which after a new lengthening gave $d\bar{\varrho}ne$, a process that is undisputable for the genesis of $[\bar{\varrho}ne]$ in ModE dont. (See Horn, Q. u. F., 98, 97). If the same interpretation is given for $t\bar{\varrho}ne$, the number of irregular rimes is almost negligible. As for twe, mention should be made also of the occasional OE $tu\bar{\varrho}$ (Sievers, § 324, Anm. 1).

² But A 3005 fool: hool (whole).

thong, so the loss of v in this word is in all probability due to its frequent use in unstressed position before a noun. To the same circumstance we may ascribe the u-vowel that must be seen in the form poure, which is the ordinary spelling in Ell. outside the rimes. If a third possibility $p\bar{o}vre$ is indicated by Ell.'s occasional poure, cannot be ascertained. If that form existed it must be considered either as a revival of the OF form, or as analogical from poverty. For Ch. only poore (\bar{o}) is undisputable.

2) $o = CF \tilde{o}/nasal + vowel$.

A 3700 cynamome (cinnamom) < cinnamome < cinnamomum (< Gr.)

 $: t\bar{o} \text{ me}$

V 300 dispone 1 < disponer < disponer

: done (to do)

II 701, 1487 persone² (person) < persone < persona : done (to do)

A 2528, F 275 trone 3 < trone < thronus (< Gr.) : soone (soon)

ŏ.

Sources:

1) o before a cons. group, except bl, st, the number of syllables being immaterial. — For \breve{o}/dz , see p. 45.

B 1952 cofre (coffer) < cofre 4 < cophīnus (< Gr.)

: gylofre (gillyflower) < girofle, gilofre < caryophyllum (< Gr.)

¹ Cp. $disp\bar{\varrho}se$. — A direct borrowing from Latin cannot be thought of, since the ME vowel would then have become $\bar{\varrho}$, which was the alphabetical value of o (p. 49). In ME, as well as in OF, dispone(r) was rather rare.

² On persoun (parson) with u, see p. 104. Irregular is only D 1161 persone: allone, belonging to the exceptions formed by $\bar{\varrho}ne$ and compounds, see p. 97 (bottom).

³ This word was learned in OF and ought to belong to the group giving ME $\bar{\varrho}$ (p. 96). It seems as though the analogy of $\bar{\varrho}/n$ in the other OF words was decisive for the $\bar{\varrho}$ in trone. That the word really came through French seems certain in view of the initial + t (not th) and the final -e, which would have been superfluous for a Latin loan. — ModE throne has spelling pron. for th and o, — An irregular rime in Ch. is, again, C 842 trone: allone. Cp. p. 97 (bottom).

⁴ On r for n in -ine(m), -inu(m), see Schw. § 188 A.

A 297 : philosóphre < philosophe < philosophus (< Gr.)

C 303 cors (corse) < cors < corpus : fors (force) < force < *fortia (< fortis) — -e lost in AF.

I 526 port (haven) < port < portus : comfort < confort, to conforter < confortāre

G 1122 profre (to proffer) < proffrer = proffrir < pro+offerre : philosophre, sb.

A 4043 sort (sort) < sort < sors, -rtis : desport (sport) < desport, to desporter < dis + portare

II 1752 sort (lot, fate) is the same word in its original sense.

: comfort

· Outside the rimes we find, for instance,

A 411 dóctour (doctor) < doctur = CF doctour < doctor, ōris 5, 65 tórment < torment = CF doctour < doctor, ōris with an irregular u, found also in F tourment)

In the last word o of course may mean \check{u} , but it seems quite admissible to assume that the \check{o} presupposed by ModE existed already. This o was a spelling-pron.

Here belong also a number of compounds with the prefix cón-(com-), which regularly developed gave ĭ ME (below), but in a number of chiefly literary words was replaced by ŏ, no doubt in conformity with ME school-pronunciation of Latin. Of course it is impossible to determine in each case if this pronunciation really prevailed in Ch.'s times, or if it is of a later date. The spelling gives no key to

¹ It is of course possible to derive the ME verb from stem-stressed forms of *proffrir*. But Derocquigny, 112, has called attention to the fact that there existed also an AF *proffrer*. Considering the large expansion of the 1st conjug. in AF, this seems quite plausible.

² Kört. assumes *resur(c)tus (L resurrectus): This would, however, have given a ME u, just as *sursa (L surrecta) gave source with u in OF and ME.

the vowel in con-. In all probability ŏ was pronounced, however, in words like E 1129 cóncord, E 1047 cónstant, D 1306 contract.

2) o in open syllable of polysyllabic words, excepting the cases where length was due to special qualities of the following syllable (p. 97). For odour, see p. 28. -orie is given separately below.

F 1002 fólies (folly) < folie, < fol (p. 98) + ie < $\bar{1}$ a

E 1004 nóveltee 1 (novelty) < novelte (F nouveauté) < *noveltas (L novitas, -ātis)

D 1144 office (property) < office < officium

F 1017 orisonte (horizon e) < horizonte < horison, -ntis (< Gr.)

A 2261 órisoun (prayer) < orisun = CF oraison < orātio, -ōnis 3) -orie

C 161 consistorie < consistorie, -oire < consistōrium : storie (story) < estorie, -oire < historia

A 2239 glorie (glory) < glorie, -oire < glōria : victorie < victorie. -oire < victōria

B 3163 memorie < memorie, -oire < memoria

: storie (story)

III 827 ~ : transitorie < transitorie, -oire < transitōrius

A parallel development of arie (p. 67) and orie was a priori to be expected, and I do not hesitate to assume a short vowel as the natural ME pronunciation. The length in ModE glory is the result of a natural spelling-pron. 3— The suffix -orie— like -arie— should, strictly speaking, not be dealt with among the stressed vowels, but used as rimes they got an artificial stress and may therefore be placed here.

¹ It is, however, not absolutely certain that the vowel was 8 here, and only the ModE vowel makes this assumption possible. We expect u, since in OF a pretonic o in unchecked syllable gave u (Schw. §§ 91, 95). When o does occur, it is in words with originally double consonant, or in learned words.

² ModE horizon is refashioned on the Greek form.

 $^{^3}$ In church I have occasionally heard such a violent spell-pron. as $[gl\bar{o}uri]$ which, certainly, is found also in certain dialects, especially Staffordshire (according to Dr G. E. Fuhrken, Gothenburg), but must be due, in Standard English, to a religious affectation.

 $oldsymbol{u}.$ Spelling.

To express \tilde{u} Ell. generally uses ou, in final position and in hiatus chiefly ow. The suffix -ous (< L - \bar{o} sus) incidentally occurs as -us, if the rime-word has $\check{u}s$.

The short vowel is regularly spelt u, except in the neighbourhood of m, n, v, occasionally also r, s. Frequently o is merely a traditional spelling preserving the Latin o, the chief source of OF u, which only from the 12th c. began to be rendered by ou, generalized from words like escoute < auscultare (M-L Gr. I § 25). The suffix -oun is sometimes changed to -on in accordance with the Latin and CF spelling.

 \bar{u} .

(a) Monosyllabic type.

Sources:

1) $u^1 = CF$ ou (later eu) < o in unchecked position.

G 865 avow (vow) < avou, to avouer < *advotare (< votum) : ynow (enough)

II 393 devoure² (to devour) < devorer < devorāre : houre (hour) < houre < hōra

D 1856* dortour (dormitory) < dormitour, with suffix-change for dortoir < L dormitōrium

: hour

B 1653* flour < flour < flos, öris

: labour < labor, -ōris

B 2091 : damour < de amour < amor, ōris (used here as a nonce-rime)

F 962* honour < honour < honor, ōris

: neighebour

A 4332* perilous 3 < perilous < periculōsus

: hous

¹ This seems to be a typical AF trait, although according to some French scholars (Nyrop, Gr. 1 \S 183) a diphthong (ou) was not a stage in the development of $\rho > u$ in CF, a process which is supposed to have been completed by 1200.

² The Latin vowel being σ, we cannot derive the ME vowel from the stem-stressed forms as is done in NED. We should then assume *devoro.

³ For -us, see p. 107.

 \bar{u} 103

B 4140 prow (profit) < prou ¹ < *prōdis, prōde, adj. (cp. prōdesse)

: now

2) u in originally checked position, made unchecked through the loss of a consonant or through the simplification of a geminate.

D 1559 croupe 2 < cro(u)pe < Gic *krupp- (OE cropp, ModE crop)

: stoupe 2 (to stoop)

D 1712 doute (doubt) < doute, to douter < dubitāre : aboute (about)

D 977 ~: oute (out)

A 2944 route < route < rupta (via)

: aboute (about)

III 1264 socouren (to succour) < socor-, inf. socorre < succurrere (F secourir)

: labouren

D 87 touche³ (to touch) < CF tochier (ONF toquer) < Gic *tukkōn (G zucken) — See Kört. : couche (couch) — See below, 3).

A 3931 ~ : pouche (pouch) < CF pouche⁴ (poche) = ONF pouque (North, Engl. pook), poque

A 2027 tour (tower) < tour < turris

: honour

3) u < ol/cons. The \bar{u} was not shortened before dr, see pp. 34, 105.

H 243 cokkow (cuckoo) < cucu (F coucou) < *cucullus

(L cucülus)

: syngstow (singest thou)

 $^{^{\}scriptscriptstyle 1}$ As an earlier loan this word appears as prūt,~prūd (proud).

 $^{^{2}}$ Both these words have remained monophthongal on account of the p.

 $^{^3}$ This vb. had its vowel shortened before the diphthon gization of ME $\vec{u}.$

⁴ I have only seen OF poche with o explained, for it seems impossible to derive pouche, pouque from Gic *pokko, and OF poche would give ME $p\bar{q}che$, so that it seems justifiable to trace the u-forms back to a Gic *pukk. Cp. OLG $p\bar{u}kel$, OE pung with u.

D 88 couche, sb. < cu(l)che, to cu(l)chier < collocare : touche (to touch)

HF 535 foudre (thunderbolt) < foudre < fulgur : poudre (powder) < poudre < pulvis, eris

III 1114 pous (pulse) < pou(l)s < pulsus

A 2154 stoute, pl. (bold, strong) < estont < stultus (M-L gives *extultus) : route, sb.

4) $u = CF \tilde{o}$ before a final n, or n/single consonant.

B 362 confounde (to destroy) < confonder < confundere : ybounde (bound) pa. p.

B 3938 expounde (to explain) < espondre < exponere : abounde (to abound) < abonder < abundare

D 2293 gowne¹ (gown) < go(u)ne (F gonne 'barrel, keg') < Celtic gw̃n (Kört.)

: towne (town)

D 2007 person² (parson) < persun = OF persone < persona : destruccion < destruccion < destruccio, -ōnis

G 1299 pronounce (to pronounce) < prononcer < pronuntiare : ounce < unce, once < *uncia (L ūncia)

D 974 soun (sound) < son < sonus (This appears only rarely as suen in OF)

: doun (down)

B 3348 sowne (to sound) < son-, inf. soner < sonāre : expowne (to explain), a doublet to expounde (above), pres. stem espon-, inf. espondre

A 565 ~: towne (town)

B 3589 viscounte < vi(s)conte < vice + comes, -itis : acounte < acunter < ad + computāre

¹ This is a remarkable case. But in ME, and probably also in Ch., the form without -e seems to have been the normal type, and it is very likely that in AF where the final -e disappeared rather early there existed doublets: gone—goun, of which the latter was made parallel with soun, etc. with final un. Cp. Note 2.

² This word presupposes some adaptation in AF to the common final -un, after the loss of the etymological -e. That such a change must have taken place becomes evident on a comparison with *persone* (p. 99) with preserved -e, and \bar{o} .

5) u before a muta cum liquida.

A 262 double < double < duplus

HF 535 foudre: poudre (powder) — See p. 104.

B 3692 sowple (supple) < suple < supplex, -icis 1

E 465 trouble (dull, turbid) < trouble < *turbulus (L turbidus)

As to *ouble*, cp. $\bar{a}ble$, $\bar{b}ble$, $\bar{o}ble$. — A diphthongization of $\bar{u}/labial$ could not take place, so the shortening need not have occurred before the vowel-shift.

6) u/r + a single consonant.

H 81 bourde (jest): gourde (gourd) — See p. 39.

E 50 cours (course) < cours < cursus : sours² (source) < sors, sorse < *sursa (for surrecta < surgere)

A 140 court < co(u)rt < cors, -tis < cohors

C 340 destourbe³ (to disturb) < destorber < disturbāre

II 1352 recours (recourse) < recours < recursus
: socours 4 (succour) < sucurs < *succursus (< L
succurrere)

III 1483 retourne: sojourne — See p. 40.

D 1938 sours (source): auditours, pl. < auditour < audītor,

When the length was preserved we find in NE a transition $\bar{u}r > \bar{o}r$, which Pogatscher, Angl. 31, 264, referring to Danish kaas (1524, in Falk-Torp), and Swedish kosa, borrowed from English course, places at a period not later than 1500.

¹ The disappearance of L -icem is parallel to cases like pale < pallidus, image < imaginem, prince < principem. See Schw. § 76 A.

² The apocopation in sorse took place in AF, so it is not necessary to assume different origins (*sursus, *sursa) for sors, sorse.

³ Cp., however, A 906 perturbe, which elsewhere, IV 561, occurs as pertourbe. When Ell. writes ou in one word, u in the other, we may conclude that by that time an etymological spelling had already set in, which perhaps immediately gave rise to a competition between \bar{u} and \bar{u} in these words. Eventually \bar{u} conquered, as we find from the ModE pronunciation.

⁴ By way of back-formation there had also arisen a sg. socour: dishonour (F 1357), as though socours had been a plural.

- 106
 - (β) Polysyllabic type.
 - 1) u in hiatus.
- B 3100 cóward < coue (< cauda) + ard < Gic -hard
- E 807 dówer < douair < *dōtārium (< dōs)
- A 218 pówer < poer < *potēre (L posse)
- B 3943 tówayle (towel) < to(u)aille < Gic *pwahlja (MHG twähele)
 - 2) $u = CF \tilde{o}$ before $n/single \ cons.$
- E 415 bountee (goodness) bontee < bonitas
- A 784 cóunseil¹ (counsel, advice) < conseil < consilium
- G 1264 countenance (appearance) < contenance < continentia
- A 139 countrefete (to counterfeit) < contrefeit < contrā + factus
- D 1887 mountain < montaigne < *montanea (< mons)
- A 1570 mountance (amount) < montance, to monter < *montance (< mons)
- A 390 róuncy (hackney, nag) < ronci (F roussin), of uncertain origin.

The $\bar{u}/n + cons$ in polysyllabic as well as monosyllabic words, must have been the result of an attempt to reproduce the French nasal as accurately as possible.

For u, as little as for i, do we find any lengthening in an open syllable of polysyllabic words followed by the specific type of syllable referred to above (pp. 28, 32).

Special cases.

A 89 embrouded (embroidered) < broder, bruder (F broder) < Gic *bord- apparently had its \bar{u} from the end-stressed forms, while the ModFrench form with o represents the stem-stressed types.

B 4590 howped (to whoop) < houper, to OF houp! (NED hoop) : powped (to blow, puff)

¹ It should be observed, however, that Ell. not infrequently writes simply con-, in accordance with the Latin and CF orthography. If, or to what extent, this resulted in a spelling-pronunciation is hard to determine. The ModE word requires ME \bar{u} . Cp. above, p. 100.

 \bar{u} 107

This verb is simply an onomatopæic formation on the OF interjection. It is conceivable that in such a word the p was originally geminated, so that we may have to do with an instance of a simplified double cons. (p. 103). A diphthongization of \bar{u}/p could not take place, anyhow.

-ous (L -ōsus).

The remarkable thing about this suffix is that, unlike others of its type — -oun, -our, etc. — it rimes with short as well as long vowels. In the majority of cases we find it riming with native $-\bar{u}s$, in the CT 23 -ous: hous: mous, but we also come across these exceptional rimes:

D 148 precius: us (us) II 759 religious: thus
D 2048 vicius: thus

The short vowel unquestionably represented the actual pronunciation, and these few rimes are, strictly speaking, more correct than those with a long vowel, which was due to tradition and French influence. Nevertheless, it is doubtful whether in these rimes the vowel was intended to be short. Considering the poet's consistency in the use of length in a riming syllable with normally unstressed vowel, one is rather inclined to believe that in his own reading he would have given an artificial length even to thus and us, which, like was (p. 60), were normally unaccented, and of which the latter had an original length (OE ūs) which might have survived in dignified pronunciation (church, etc.) — Of course it is rather unimportant whether in poetry -ous was read -ūs or -ŭs in the rimes. The fact remains that the natural speech had -us < as well as -ŭn, -ŭr, etc.

A 2012 óutrage < outrage < *ultrāticum (< ultra)

Here the long vowel must be due to an early association with out.

Remarkable is \bar{u} corresponding to an OF ui in I 418 pounsoning (Ell. powsonynge), in ModE 'to pounce', and E 356 frownyng (to frown). For the former word we find even in AF poncon (Moisy).

Doubtful is the quantity of B 1871, D 497 tombe in view of the ou in F 518 toumbe, the latter being probably the regular form of the word. A diphthongization of \bar{u}/m could not take place, and the spelling tombe was only traditional.

Sources: \check{u} .

1) u before a cons. group. Excepted are n/single cons. and, in monosyllables, also r/single cons. — For \bar{u}/n , $\bar{u}/r + cons$, see above. — The occasional ou is a traditional spelling.

A 4165 búrdoun (burden, bass-accompaniment) < bordon (F bourdon) < MedL burdo (drone)

G 32 cómfort < confort, to conforter < confortāre

LGW 852 cónduit 1 < conduit < *conductus (< L conductus)
D 1249 cúrtin (curtain) < cortin(e), CF cortine < cortīna

(< cors)

D 682 cústume (custom) < custume < *consuetūmen (L consuetūdo)

A 508 encombre (encumber) < encomber, to combre <*combrus (Celtic) — See M-L

A 202 fórneys (furnace) < fornais² < fornax, -ācis

A 2738 Ióurnee (day's march) < journee < *diurnāta (< diurnus)

A 716 nombre (number) < nombre < numerus

B 170 púrpos (purpose) < purpos (F propos), to purposer³ < prō + pausāre

E 1157 scourge < escurge (F écourgée), to escurger < *excoriāre (< corium)

A 543 sómnour (summoner) < somonur, to somondre < submonēre

E 698 stúrdy (harsh, hard) < estourdi (F étourdir) < *exturdīre (< turdus 'thrush') — See Kört.

Before r/cons. in polysyllables Ell. shows some vacillation between ou, o, and u.

¹ ModE has [ν] and [ν] in this word. Both may be based on ME doublets, but it is naturally impossible to ascertain, in such case, the proportions of the regular $\tilde{\nu}$ and the spelling-pronounced δ (See p. 48).

 $^{^2}$ The OF vowel should have $\varrho,$ but u is explained on the analogy of four < furnus (Hatzf.-D.).

³ In Engl. the vb. was derived from the noun, as is evident from the voiceless [s].

2) u in open syllable of polysyllabic words.

B 4324 bóteler¹(butler)
buteiller<*butticulārius, to*butticula (F bouteille, E bottle), of unknown origin (Kört.).

F 724 cólour < colour < color, öris

B 2045 cómyn (cummin) < comin < cumīnum (Cp. p. 000, Note 1)

5, 193 cónyes² (rabbits, conies) < conis pl. of conil < cunīculus

A 1131 cósin (cousin) < cousin < consobrīnus

A 3884 cóveityse (covetousness) < coveitise < cupiditia

A 578 dóseyn (dozen) < dosaine < *dōdicēna (L duōdecim)

B 421 sódein (sudden) < sodain < *subitānus (L subitāneus)

A 1054 sótil (subtle) < sotil (F subtil) < subtīlis. Cp. C 141 subtil (p. 110)

A 1909 touret (turret) < tourete < tour < turris + et < L -itta

3) ü/cons. group, inclusive -ie.

It has not been shown conclusively that OF "was represented by a ME ii, and yet that is a widely accepted view. In view of the NE development of this sound, it seems even a priori impossible to place the differentiation between words like study - student, humble - human, etc., in any other period than the ME, where OF ii was rendered differently in different positions. It is difficult to realize (1) why a ME ii should change into iu, and (2) why a ME ii should have given partly ii and partly iu, as in just utility, since it cannot very well be assumed that the pretonic ü, if such was the vowel, should have been long. The fact is that the distribution of iu and u in ME was dependent, not on the stress conditions, but on the syllable being unchecked or checked. In an unchecked syllable we find either $i\bar{u}$ or $i\bar{u}$ according to the rules applicable for the vowels, for, as a matter of fact, a distinction must be made between the quantities of suit - suitable, and here, as

¹ Trisyllabic.

² Cony is thus a back-formation. ModE has [v], and since the 19th c. also $[\bar{o}u]$ by spell-pron. (NED).

³ ou from tour. ModE turret is refashioned after L turris. In Ch. -et represents OF -ette, as well as -et. The coalescence is likely to have originated in AF.

in the case of the vowels, the difference must be traced back to ME; in an unchecked syllable we find consistently \check{u} (p. 33).

I 326 borneth² (to burnish) < burnir, brunir < Gic *brunjan (cp. brown)

: torneth: sojorneth — See p. 40

B 4430 bulte (to bolt, sift) < buleter (F bluter) — (Orrm: bulltedd)

I 124 humble < hümble, hümele < humilis (OF ü shows learned origin)

D 2090 Iust < just (CF juste) < jūstus

C 374 múltiplying < multiplier < multiplicare (Learned word in OF)

F 1214 stúdie (study) < estudie < studia

E 482 subject (subject) < subjet < subjectum

C 141 súbtil³ (subtle) < subtil < subtilis

¹ For *iu*, see p. 123 ff.

² This rime would not be possible if the first rime-word had u, which is contradicted also by the spelling.

³ Cp. A 1054 sótil < sutil. We thus find the popular as well as the learned forms of this word (Schw. § 95 A) transmitted into ME. — Of course the prep. sub in A 489 substaunce, etc. had regular ĭ, although French substance, etc. dating back to the 12th c., has now ü by spelling-pron

й 111

F 1114 surgerye < CF cirurgerie, cirurgie (< Gr.) — The curious contraction is traced even in French: surgiiens, sururgien (Gadefr., suppl.).

6, 31 súrname < sür (\ddot{u} from analogy of sus), for sor < suprā + name (One might also think of so(u)r as a source.)

As we may conclude from studie the combination of a cons./ie had the same effect upon the preceding \ddot{u} as a cons. group. That does not necessarily mean that the i was consonantic in ME (cp. p. 32). If it were, we should expect a development like studie > *studje > *studze > [*studz].

4) urie

Being similar to *studie*, and also to *-arie*, *-erie*, *-orie*, the group *-urie* may also be given \tilde{u} in spite of the ModE $[j\tilde{\nu}]$. This ending occurs only in learned words, and the $[i\tilde{u}]$ may have entered as a spelling-pronunciation. — Cp. *-orie*.

A 1385 Mercurie (Mercury) < Mercurie < Mercūrius : murie¹ (merry)

G 774 mercurie (mercury): porfurie (porphyry) = *porfirie (CF porfire) < porphyrius (< Gr.)

The Chaucerian form of the last word (with u for i) points to Greek influence, as far as the vowel is concerned. But this very u (< Gr. v) followed the same development as if it had come from French, that is, it became in this case — before ri — ME i.

Special cases.

HF 1348 ducat cannot be taken from French, where it is not recorded before 1389 (Hatzf.-D.) and which, moreover, would have been reflected by a ME iu. The French

¹ The normal form in Ch. is mërye (A 207: berye 'berry', etc). This rime-form did not belong to Ch.'s own language, so this rime cannot serve as a criterion. Murie was simply a loan from an y-dialect, and in this nonce-rime the more refined pronunciation y seems undeniable (see p. 34). Another possibility is that murie was pronounced with ŭ as in the French words. Wright (EDD) really has [mvrri] for several southern dialects, but of course it cannot be taken for granted that Ch.'s murie was taken from a substrate of these forms.

112 \ddot{u}

and the English word must have been taken over independently from the Italian $ducato^1$ (< L $duc\bar{a}tus$ 'duchy'), the vowel being pronounced with spelling-pron.: \ddot{u} , \breve{u} in the resp. languages.

A 96 Iuste (to just, joust) < juster, joster, < *juxtare (< juxta)

The quantity of the u of L $juxt\bar{a}$ is doubtful (see Walde, Et. Wb.). It is also doubtful whether, beside the OF \check{u} , which is presupposed by ModF jouter, there existed a form with \ddot{u} . The OF spelling juster may mean u or \ddot{u} . From the ME point of view, however, the \ddot{u} -form is at least the more desirable. The ME spelling points to \check{u} , the ModE alternative joust being later and probably refashioned after French. An OF u/st would have given ME $\bar{u}st$, as we find for instance in ModE oust (< ouster, F oster < obstāre?), whereas \check{u} is the regular result of an OF checked \check{u} . It seems, therefore, possible that OF had \check{u} beside u in this word.

D 2100 muscle² (mussel), despite the scarcity of OE muscle, cannot very well be from OF, where the usual form was mousle (F moule) $< m\bar{u}sculus$ ($< m\bar{u}s$).

A 657 ypunysshed had no doubt \check{u} . It seems as though the ending ish, sometimes reduced to sh, always caused a short vowel in the preceding syllable.

E 339 astoned (astonished): woned (wonted) cannot be derived from OF estoner (see NED), which would have given a ME \bar{u} , and may, in fact, be reflected in occasional spellings with ou (likewise in ModE astound); but here the short vowel points rather to OE stunian, to which a-could be prefixed merely for the sake of emphasis, as was often the case.

¹ The first ducat was coined in Venice in 1284.

² This muscle is not 'Muskel', as Remus (p. 142) takes it.

Diphthongs.

With the invasion of French loan-words ME had to introduce, amongst other things, three new diphthongs: iu, oi, ui. Of these the last two are now combined in [2i] in Standard English, while many dialects show a development of ME ui parallel to that of ME u. The disappearance of ME ui may to some extent have been due to the influence of orthography, oi, oy being used almost consistently to express ui, just as ŭ was represented by o before m, n, etc. (p. 102). Nevertheless, it seems natural to see also a phonetical process behind this transformation. It is a well-known fact that the last element of these diphthongs — as well as in ai — gradually weakened to a rather obscure glide, in the case of ai probably disappearing completely. Now this glide was in all probability weakening from i to e, at the same time as the first element lengthened more and more. A combination *vues (voice), however, would have broken the 'vocalic harmony', and with e as a glide the first element must have become o, and [voes] is, in fact, a fairly accurate transcription of the ModE pronunciation. The change thus consisted in a gradual lowering of both elements of the diphthong. It is difficult to fix any periods for the different stages of this process. The tendency was probably as old as these loans themselves, but we can hardly assume that that oi < ui was reached by Ch.'s time. There is an interesting resemblance between the development of these ui, oi and that of ME eu, eu, since in both cases the last element modified the first, e giving a lowered, u a raised, first element.

ai.

Spelling.

In Ell. we find chiefly ay, ey, seldom ai, ei. In most cases, although by no means consistently carried through, the a and e represent the traditional etymological spelling which had been continued even after ei and ai had been levelled under ai.

Sources:

1) ai, finally or before -e, < a + (epenthetic) i.

B 1487 abbeye¹ (abbey) < abai(e) < *abbātīa (L abbātīa) : pleye (to play)

B 1812 abbay: alway (always)

: lay (pret. of OE licgan)

E 2391 apayd (satisfied) < apayer < ad + pācāre

: missayd (said amiss)

A 2267 delay, sb., to delaye < delaier < de + laier < *lagjan (to lay) — See Kört.

: day

F 948 layes (songs) < lai, probably of Gic origin (cp. OE lāc) : virelayes < virelai < virer (to turn) + lai (above)

2) $-eie = CF - ee < -\bar{a}ta$

This ending occurs only in a few words, since as a rule we find the normal -ee (ē) instead of the diphthong, which originally was developed in some Western ONF dialects, according to an assumption by Vising (Jahresbericht d. Roman. Phil. 1909, I 218).

It seems reasonable to see in the insertion of this i a phonetically intelligible substitution of i for δ at the stage when the spirant had reached its weakest articulation and a hiatus was near at hand. To avoid this the i presented itself as the most convenient substitute. Cp. Zachr., AN Infl., 101 ff.

¹ Here preceded by the prep. to, which accounts for -e, the normal form in Ch. being abbay, as in the next rimes. — The suffix -ātia would of course have given -āce (cp. abbacy). The French (abbaye) as well as the English form point to an early change of suffixes (ia for ia).

ai 115

III 1141 chimeneye (chimney) = CF cheminee < *camināta < camīnus (< Gr.)

: tweve

E 784 Iourneye (day's work) = CF journee < *diurnāta (< diurnus)

: weve

HF 1918 valeye (valley) = CF valee < *vallāta (< valles) : seye (to say)

Even in II 820 aleyes (: weyes 'ways') = CF alee, a verbal noun formed from al(l)er, we have evidently to do with the same suffix.

3) ai, before a nasal or lateral, a + epenthetic i.

In CF, too, we find ai/r, but a/\tilde{n} , \tilde{l} , while in AF \tilde{n} , \tilde{l} had been resolved into in, il.

3, 340 air < air < āēr : fair, adj.

B 3953 assaille (to assail) < assaillir < *assălio (< salīre)

: availle (to avail) < *availle < CF vaill-, inf. valeir < valēre

: bataille (battle) < bataille < *battālia (< battere)

: faille (to fail) < faillir < *fallio, -īre (L fallere)

: biwaille (to bewail) < bi + Scand. *veila, to vei (woe). Cp. Björkm., 51, 52.

A 1224 bareyne (barren) < baraigne < *barānea (< bāro) See Kört, and Walde, Et. Wb., bāro.

: atteyne (to attain) - See p. 76 Note 3, and p. 117.

E 850 dowaire (dower) douaire (*dōtārium (dōs), -aire for -ier being a learned suffix.

: faire, adj. pl. (fair)

¹ It has been shown above (pp. 71, 74) that before other consonants at had become monophthongized, giving ME \bar{e} .

² Beside -aire we have found -ēr (p. 76), -arie (p. 67) as equivalents of L -ārius. In E 807 Ell. has indeed dówer, which cannot be proved for Ch., and was due to a suffix-change rather than to a weakening of air > er. Cp. C 20 vícaire — D 2008 víker (vicar).

116 ai

G 132 haire (hair-shirt) < haire < Gic *hārja (> OHG harra) : faire (fairly)

5, 179 pleyne (to complain) < plain-, inf. plaindre < plangere : carayne (carrion) < *caraine = caroigne (F charogne) < *carōnia (< cāro) — The AF form points to a suffix-change.

E 1204 quaille (quail) < quaille (F caille) < Gic, OHG quahtela (Kluge), beside wahtala : aventaille (ventail, air-hole) < aventaille = CF esventail < *exventaculum (< ventus)

C 949 seint (saint) < saint < sanctus : depeint (depicted) (p. 118)

- A 570 vitaille (victuals) < vitaille < victuālia (< vīvo) : taille (to tally) < taillier < *tāliare (< tālea 'rod, twig')
 - 4) ai < a + nasal
- D 1488 certayn (certain) < certain < *certānus (< certus) : agayn (again)
- D 1132 clayme (to claim) < claim-, inf. clamer < clāmāre : mayme¹ (to maim) < mayner, mahaignier < ?
- F 699 frankeleyn (franklin) < fraunkelayn < *frankalānus (< Franko 'a free man') see NED.
 : desdeyn (disdain) < desdein, to desdegnier < dis + dignāre
- C 374 grayn (grain) < grain < grānum : mitayn (mittain) < mitaine < mite (< Gic *mit-, OLG mite) + aine < āna (Hatzf.-D.)
- B 3944 pleyn (plain) < plain < planus : seyn (to say)
- G 591 soverayn (soverain) < soverain *superānus (< super) : fayn (fain)
- F 971 vayn (vain) < vain < vānus : agayn (again)
- 5) ei = CF ei, oi < e ($< \bar{e}$, \check{i}). Before a nasal CF $\tilde{e}i$ did not pass to oi.

¹ The final m for n is due the assimilatory influence of the initial m.

B 3272 affray (fray, fright) < affrei = CF esfrei, to effreier 1 < ex + Gic *fridu (peace) : array < arrei < ad + Gic *rēdan (OE zeræde)

: lay (pret. of OE licgan)

- E 784 fey (faith) < fei (F foi) < fides : hey (hay)
- A 4358 feith (faith), a doublet to fey (above), but of earlier adoption : seith (says)
- B 1527 moneye (money) < monneie² < monēta : pleye (to play)
- D 1375 pray(e) (prey) < preie = CF proie < præda : (on a) day(e)
- E 191 purveye (to provide) < purveier = CF pourvoir < providere : leye (to lay)
- G 274 receyve 4 (to receive) < receiv-, inf. receveir = CF reçoiv-, recevoir < recipere : weyve (to waive) < waiver (in Britton, I 50) = CF gaiver (< Gic)
- A 695 veyl (veil) < veil = CF voil(e) < vēlum : seyl (sail)
- G 1241 veyne (vein) < veine < vēna : teyne (a thin plate of metal) < Scand. tein-n (twig) = OE tān (NED⁵)
- 6) ei = CF ei, oi < e + epenthetic i. Before a nasal CF $\tilde{e}i$ was preserved. AF ei/l corresponds to CF e/\tilde{l} .

¹ The regular French form was effroyer, but effrayer has been taken up from dialects with ei preserved. (Schw. § 225 A).

² For ModF monnaie, cp. Note 1.

³ That -e should be added is proved by D 1455 preye (prey): sey ye (say you).

⁴ While ModE has preserved the diphtongal ME vowel in its spelling, its phonetical basis is ME \bar{e} , corresponding to the end-stressed OF forms. It is also possible that the later ME remodelled the verb after CF, or after AF, where ei was monophthongized in the 14th c.

⁵ Skeat (Gloss.) gives L tænia + Gr. ταινία, which with the lack of OF instances seems less attractive. On the other hand the -e does not agree with the Scand. origin. — Björkm. does not give the word.

1, 153 appareil(e) (apparel) < appareil, to apereiller < ad + *pariculus (< par)

: counseil(e) < conseil < consilium.

B 3774 attayne (to attain) < atein-, inf. ateindre < attingere : payne (pain) < peine < poena : restrayne (to restrain) < restrein-, inf. -eindre < restringere

A 369 deis (dais) < deis 1 < discus

: burgeys (burgess) < burgeis (F bourgeois) < Gic burg + L -ensis

B 3855 demeyne (dominion) < demeine < dominium. For de-, see Schw. § 11 A.

: compleyne (to complein)

C 949 depeint (depicted) < depein-, eindre < depingere : seint (saint)

A 3423 merveyle (marvel) < merveille < mīrabilia : eyle (to ail) < OE eglan

B 3666 obeye (to obey) < obeir < obedire (half-learned in OF) : pleye (to play)

E 643 outraye (to be outrageous) < utraier < *ultricāre (< ultra)

: preye (to pray) - See below.

A 301 scoleye (to attend school) < *escoleier < escole + -eier = CF oyer < -icāre : preye (to pray)

B 3522 werreye (to make war) < werreier (F guerroier) < werre + -eier < -icāre : pleye (to play)

· proje (to praj)

7) ei = CF ei, $oi < pretonic <math>e + epenthetic i^2$.

B 2156 preye (to pray) < preiier < *precāre (L precāri) : seye (to say)

¹ ModF dais, for earlier dois, is from Picard. — For HF 1360 dees: prees (crowd) we have to assume the occasional use of the French pronunciation, by that time monophthongal.

² Which in stressed syllable gave i.

D 706 preysed (praised) < preisier < pretiāre : reysed (raised)

G 268 reneye (to deny) < reneiier < renegāre : seye (to say)

Specical cases.

What was Ch.'s equivalent of ModE company? Ell. writes B 4183 compaignye, but usually, B 134, etc., companye, where a for ai was possibly due to dissimilation. On the other hand, Ell. has only ai in B 1194, etc. compaignable, where no i was found in the next syllable.

D 2101 eyse (ease) < aise < adjacens (Thomas, Rom. XXI, 506). See Kört.
: revse (to raise)

III 1406 ~: countrepeise (to counterpoise) < contrepeis, inf. -peser < contre + pē(n)sare

We have seen that the normal form was \(\bar{\epsilon}se (p. 71), the rule being that OF ai is represented by a monophthong in Ch. 1, whereas OF ei, later oi in CF, was preserved. A side-form with [ai] is, however, undisputable, although apparently used only as a shiftmake in need of rime. The diphthong is explained by Slettengren, Engl. St. 49, 13, as connected with the early adoption (1225) of the word, which was prior to the AF monophthongization of ai. To this explanation it may be objected (1) that other words, for instance pees (peace) reson (reason), adopted equally early, do not know of any diphthong, and (2) that there is no instance of a monophthongization of $ai > \bar{e}$ taking place in ME. Nor do we find any general remoulding of the diphthongal words into monophthongal as a result of the influence of the French forms monophthongized after the period of their adoption into ME, so that it is hardly admissible to assume that an original diphthong in aise

¹ Except before a nasal or liquid (p. 115).

120 ai

should be superseded by the monophthong that in the meantime had developed in AF.

It is difficult to see in this occasional eyse anything more than a mere eye-rime, with the French spelling borrowed simply to make a rime. The great influence of French poetry might be responsible for loans of that kind. Cp. the opposite process with dees (dais), p. 118 Note 1.

-eys < -eis (= CF -ois) < -iscus, -ensis seems to have had an influence reaching far beyond its original domain. At least in AF¹ do we meet with cases of an original -ais yielding to an -eis, which alone can account for the preserved diphtong in ME. Thus we find in Ch.

A 560 forneys (furnace) < forneis = CF fornaise 2 < fornacem : goliardeys 'buffon' (= CF goliardois) < goliard (to gole < gula) + eis

E 1711 paleys (palace) < paleis = CF palais < palātium : deys (dais) — See p. 118.

G 1366 receit (receipt, recipe) < receit(e) = CF receite³, to receiv- < recipere
: deceit < deceit(e) = CF deceit(e) to deceiv-, < dē-

The diphthong here is due to analogical influence of the stem-stressed forms of the OF vb. For the ModE form the influence of the verb (p. 117) is evident.

A 4083 reyne (rein) < reine = CF resne (F rêne) < *retina (L retināculum), to retinēre : peyne (pein)

¹ In CF we find the reverse influence in harnais, OF harneis with -cis < -iscus.

² The regular form would also have given a ME voiced z.

 $^{^{8}}$ In French récette we have the regular equivalent of the pa. p. re-eepta.

ai 121

The origin of the AF ei in this word is somewhat exceptional. It is a recognised fact that in some Eastern OF dialects isn could develop to $i\tilde{n}$, spelt ign, which accounts for the use of spellings sn for gn even in other cases. In this case, however, we have not to do with isn, but esn, so this word does not exactly fall in line with that group.

The OF resne is interpreted by Stimming¹ as the result of a process *retina > *reðne > resne with $\delta/n > z/n$. However that may be, the second stage seems certain, and while a transition of resne to reine must be rejected, there is more of a probability for that of *reðne < reine, in the same way as we have found $\bar{a}ta > *a\delta e > eie$ (p. 114) in some Northern dialects.

A similar difficulty is found in A 1258 meynee < meyne, mesnie < *mansionāta (< L mansio)

A 1258 meynee < meyne, mesnie < *mansionāta (< L mansio) Most likely the i, however, was here the original epenthetic i.

A 2139 trays (traces) < traits, sg. trait < tractus (< traho) : harnays < harneis = CF harnois < Celtic harn 'iron' (Kört.) + -eis < -iscus

The ME diphthong in this word is remarkable. Possibly the OF forms of the related vb. traire were influential on the noun, and we have seen that ai/r was not monophthongized by the time the French words began to come in.

IV 438 trayse (to betray) < trais-, inf. trair < *trādīre (L trādere)

A 1130 traytour (traitor) < traitour < trāditor, -ōris (traitre² from the nominative) preserved the diphthong.

The explanation is the same as for ModFrench trair, namely the fact that there never was a diphthong in this verb. — For $tr\bar{\epsilon}son$, see p. 74.

¹ ZRPh. 35, 95. According to Schwan (§ 120 A), this development is uncertain. — For further discussion of the whole question, see Gaston Paris in Romania 15, 619 and Kluge in ZRPh. 20.

 $^{^{2}}$ Cp. F $\it{traître},$ where the cons. group \it{tr} seems to have brought about the monophthong.

122 au

B 467 wayten (to observe) < guaitier < Gic *wahton

The preserved ai has been ascribed by Behrens, Franz. Stud. 5: 2, 129, to the influence of w, an explanation that does not seem very convincing. Slettengren, Engl. Stud. 49,13, ascribes the diphthong in this case as well to the early adoption of the word (cp. p. 119).

au.

Spelling.

This diphthong is usually spelt au in Ell., seldom au. Sources:

- 1) au < a/l + cons. au/v gave ME \bar{a} (p. 55).
- A 1905 auter (altar) < autier < altārium (< altus)
- D 1354 baude (bawd) < baude < Gic (OHG) bald (gay) : laude (praise) < laude < laus, laudis
- F 411 faucon (falcon) < faucon < falco, onis
- A 2431 hauberk² < hauberc < Gic (OHG) halsberc < hals + bergan (= OE beorgan 'to protect')
- C 330 hauteyn (haughty) < hautain < *altānus (< altus), the h being the h of Gic (OHG) hoh
- HF 1321 heraudes (heralds) < herau(l)t < Gic *hari-weald (OHG herolt)

No monophthongization seems to have taken place before m in II 53 bawme (balm) < bau(s)me < balsamum (< Gr.), nor in III 1114 pawmes (palm of the hand) < paume < palma. ME had also spellings -ame in these words, but in Ch. at least we do not find them riming with $\bar{a}me$. The ModE spelling is 'learned'.

¹ ModE altar, falcon are spelled and pronounced after the Latin models.

² But A 76 habergeoun, where au is mostly replaced by a, evidently in a weak-stressed syllable. In Ch. I have only found the word in rime, so the actual stress is not easy to ascertain. Cp., however, ModE, where the stress may fall on the first or on the 2nd syllable, and the first vowel may be [a] or [5]. These conditions may reflect the ME state of things.

eu 123

2) au < au in learned words. — The normal history of L au was $au > OF \rho > ME \tilde{\rho}$ (p. 95).

II 727 cause < cause < causa

: clause < clause < clauso (< claudo)

D 2136 fraude (fraud) < fraude < fraus, -audis

II 351 gaude (gaud, toy) < gaude 1 < gaudia : baude (bawd) — See p. 122

HF 1107 laure (laurel-tree) < laure < laurus

3) ao

D 1750 brawn (brawn, muscle) < braon < Gic *brāto (G Braten)

B 236 maumetrye (Mahometanism), to AF Mahomet

ęu.

Spelling.

Ell. writes beautee in the French way; in the other word, heronsew(es), we find the same spelling as in native words with that diphthong.

Source:

 $\begin{array}{lll} & eau < \varrho/l + cons. & \text{For } eau/m > \bar{\varrho}/m, \text{ see p. 73}, \textit{ remes} \text{ (realms)}. \\ \textbf{A 2385 beautee (beauty)} < \text{beautee} < \text{*bellitas, -\bar{a}tis (< bellus)} \\ \textbf{F 68 herons} \bar{\varrho} \text{wes (heronshaw, young heron)} < \text{heronceau} \\ & < \text{heron + cellus} \end{array}$

: sewes (juices) < OE sēaw

In the combination ewe one might of course take w as a consonant and read \bar{e}/we , but in beautee, where the w cannot commence the next syllable, ϵu was inevitable. In any case, it is evident that the first element of the diphthong was long, perhaps slightly shorter than \bar{e} . There could not possibly be the same distribution of quantity as in ou, because that would presuppose that in the same way as $\bar{e}w < OE$ $\bar{e}w$ and $\bar{e}w < OE$ $\bar{e}w$ had coalesced into ou in Ch., we should find OE $\bar{e}aw$ and $\bar{e}ow$ identical, too, which is not the case. Neither is ϵu parallel to the diphthong

¹ The AF word means 'bead', but no serious difficulties seem to' oppose the identity of the ME and the AF words.

developed from OE $\bar{e}z$, $\bar{e}z$, which likewise had coalesced. ME e^{u} and e^{u} were rather on a level with $e^{\bar{e}}$, $e^{\bar{e}}$ in their development towards ModE $[i\bar{u}]$.

iu.

Spelling.

As a rule Ell. preserves the traditional French spelling. Thus we find u, ui — the latter, of course, often written uy - eu as in deu, seur. Spellings like B 1284 salewe (< saluer (to salute)) just show the difficulties under which the ME orthography laboured in its attempt to express the new sound. For salue would mean salve, and in salwe w would also be interpreted as a consonant. — In A 173 reulen the source is OF iu, and when Ell. writes eu, it is simply because i/vowel generally meant dz in ME. - B 1760 Iew (Jew) could not very well be spelt Iu, since final u was foreign to his methods of spelling — on the other hand, B 1749 Iues was quite natural - nor could he write Iw, where I would be vocalic. — In a few cases. as F 643 mewe: blewe, it really seems as though the scribe employs the traditional native ew (< OE eow), indicating that Ch.'s eu had become iu by Ell.'s time 2 (about 1420).

Sources:

1) $\ddot{u} < \bar{u}$ — OF $\ddot{e}\ddot{u}$ had lost its e (p. 142).

 ${
m HF~1325~[cote-]armure}$ (armour) < armeure < armātura

: vesture < vesture < *vestūra (< vestis)

I 680 assure < asseürer < *assēcūro (< sēcūrus)

: endure < endurer < indūrāre

C~11 creature < creature < creature

: nature < nature < nātūra

¹ Which is not found in OF loan-words, unless possibly in such occasional borrowings as B 39 departieux, A 384 mortreux (soups).

² Such being the case, it seems as though the transition eu > iu was somewhat earlier than that of $\bar{e} > \bar{i}$.

³ The ModE armour with the suffix changed was also familiar to Ch.: B 2056 armour: flour (flower). Although found in Sir Thopas, this form is not of necessity the outcome of purposely bad riming, since the contemporary literature has a great many instances of it.

iu 125

E 622 ~: mesure (measure) < mesure < mensūra

A 3043 due < deu, to devoir (< dēbēre)

: eschue (to eschew) — See below.

E 1313 fortune < fortune < fortuna

: commune (common share) < comun < commūnis

A 1719 Iuge (judge) < juge < jūdex, icis¹

: refuge < refuge < refūgium

A 349 muwe (mew) < mue, to muer < mūtāre : stuwe (fishpond) — See p. 126.

F 181 remewed 2 (removed) < remuer < re + m \bar{u} tare

: yglewed (glued) < gluer, to glu < glüs, -ūtis

G 431 similitude < similitude < similitudo

: rude < rude < rudis

: conclude — See p. 127.

The transition $e\ddot{u} > \ddot{u}$ had taken place in AF, so that tenB § 74, was wrong when he assumed that the ModE f in sure came from $s_{\mathcal{E}}$.

2) $\ddot{u} < iu$, iv, uv. — The process of these changes is not quite clear. Perhaps the direct source of the ME diphthong here was AF iu, but it is very possible that this iu came from AF $\ddot{u} < \ddot{u}\ddot{i} < i\ddot{u}$ through metathesis (Cp. 4).

E 1812³ eschu (averse) < eschiu, nomin. eschi(f)s < Gic *skiu-(=OE scēoh 'shy'). Cp. the vb. (de) coitu (L coitus)

A 3043 eschue (to eschew, escape) < eschuir (Moisy) = CF eschiver⁴ (F esquiver) < Gic *sciuhan : due — See above.

² This vb. had even in OF largely, and in ME exclusively, the sense of 'to remove'.

¹ The Folk-L type was, according to Schw. § 137 A, *jūdicu instead of *jūdice, or d_3 was due to the vb. jügier. — For jügge (to judge), see p. 46.

⁴ The interchange of iv, iu in OF is not clear. Cp. Schw. § 106.

126 in

B 1760 Iew < giu, earlier juieu < Iūdæus

B 4234 reulen (to rule) < riuler < rēgulāre

A 349 stuwe 1 (stew, fishpond) < estuve < *extūbare (< $\tau \tilde{\nu} \phi c c c c$ + $t \bar{\nu} b u c c$)

: muwe (mew) — See p. 125.

I 379 suwe (to sue) < sieu-2, inf. suivre < *sequere (L sequi) : muwe (mew)

3) \ddot{u} ? = CF eu, ev

This group is still more obscure, and it bears only a partial resemblance to the development of the preceding group, since I know no trace of an OF or AF transition eu > iu.

F 644 blewe (blue) pl. = CF bleu, blef < OFrankish *blāw-< Gic *blēw- (M-L, Einführ., 54)

: mewe (mew)

IV 1310 truwe³ (truce) = CF treve, tri(e)ve (F trève) < Gic (OE) trēowe : muwe (mew)

4) $\ddot{u} = CF \quad \ddot{u}i < \bar{u} + epenthetic \quad i$

C 510, 656, etc. fruit < fruit < fructus

In A 2463 rúyne (ruin) < CF ruine < ruina we have a word taken over after the transition of $\ddot{u}i > \ddot{u}^4$. This change apparently took place while the stress was still on the first element of $\ddot{u}i$.

It has not been necessary to keep apart monosyllabic and polysyllabic types, since the diphthong is consistently

 $^{^1}$ For D 1332 $st\bar{y}ves$ (ī): lȳves, see p. 93.

² The complicated character of this question may be illustrated by the variety of forms adduced by Schw. § 247 A as the results of Folk-L *sēquit: sieut, siut, suit, sieu, siu, suif.

³ Wild, 222, 223, hesitates whether to declare this rime impure, or to consider it a proof of the coalescence in Ch. of OE ēow and French i. Neither alternative would be acceptable. The rime is correct, because both words are OF loans, although truwe happens to be of English extraction. — Even NED traces it back — without French mediation — to OE trēow(a), although it has no ME instance of the word earlier than the 14th c.

⁴ For A 2177 deduyt: whyt, see p. 91.

 o_i 127

found — perhaps with a slight shade in quantity for the u-element (cp. tune—funeral) — whenever the vowel occurred in an unchecked syllable. To these we may also refer — as has proved applicable for the vocalism as a whole — the cases of \ddot{u} followed by a muta cum liquida. Consequently we find iu in

G 1402 lucre < lucre < lucrum

B 2046 sugre (sugar) < sucre¹ < Arab. sokkar

The last word with its modern initial [f] points, among other evidences², to a ME diphthong, since [f] presupposes sj < si.

As to the proportions of length between the two elements in iu, this much may be said that, whatever the original expression of \ddot{u} may have been, $\dot{i}u$ or $\dot{i}u$, it did not take long before $\dot{i}u$ was victorious, since the 'heavier' part of the diphthong was bound to become the center of the syllable, a process repeated also in the case of native $\dot{e}w$, $\dot{e}w$.

Special cases.

G 772 conclude: crude (< conclūdere, crūdus)

Of course these words cannot be from French, but the existence of the OF equivalents may have inspired such loans from Latin itself. When ME had borrowed conclusioun from OF, this word was easily identified by learned people with L conclūsio, and when a verb was to be coined to this noun, L conclūdere suggested itself easily as the correct form ³.

H 72 lure (lure, bait) = CF leurre < ? Gic *lōpr (MHG luoder 'bait')

: peraventure (perhaps)

¹ There were no French forms with g (NED). — The ModE vowel in sugar is $[\check{u}]$.

² See Jespersen: Hart's pron., 49 ff. — Sturmfels, Angl. 9, 571, had already pointed out the impossibility of a ME monophthong for *ü*. — Holthaus, Angl. 8, suggested ME *eu* for OF *ü*. — See also above, p. 33.

² That the vb. happens to be instanced as the slightly (20 years) earlier of the two in NED may be purely incidental, and affords, in any case, no evidence against this theory.

128 oj

The etymology of the OF word, of which the earlier form is *loirre*, is itself debatable. With the above derivation we should get an OF ue giving ME \bar{e} . Remarkable is the spelling lurre (Godefr., Suppl.), which agrees better with the ME form than loirre, leurre do.

oi.

Spelling.

Ell. has almost consistently oy. Occasionally oi occurs in younger loans from CentralF, as in roial, but never in final position, according to the same principle as was followed for i.

Sources:

1) $\varrho i < au + epenthetic i$

A 181 cloystre (cloister) < cloistre < *claustrium (L claustrum) : oystre (oyster) — See below.

IV 1306 Ioye (joy) < joie < gaudia (pl.)

: anoye (to annoy) — See 2) and p. 130.

V 782 ~: acoye (to coax) — II 801 coye is an aphetic form. — See coy, p. 129.

2) $oi = CF \ddot{u}i^1 < \varrho + epenthetic i$

IV 1304 anoye (to annoy) < anoier = CF enuier < *inodiare (= odium)

: Ioye (joy)

G 812 oille (oil) < oile = CF üile < oleum

: argoille (crude cream of tartar), of unknown origin

D 2099 oystre (oyster) < oistre = CF üistre < ostrea

: cloystre (cloister)

A 2751 voyden (to get rid of) < voider = CF vuider (F vider) < *vocitāre (L vacuāre); cp. L. vocuus = vacuus

¹ The development of $\varrho+i>ii$ is recognised as a specific CF trait (Nyrop 1, § 202), and although oi is not given for the whole of the ONF domain (Schw. III 100), it is regularly reflected in ME, and may thus be considered prevalent in AF. — The rimes given here would have been impossible in CF.

ui 129

As far as the verbs are concerned, it would be quite as possible to derive this oi from the end-stressed forms of CF, but the nouns do not allow of such an explanation.

3) CF oi (= AF ei) < e

A 119 coy < CF coi > *quētus (L quiētus) : Loy (St. Eligias)

B 961 royal < CF roial < rēgālis

Ell. and Hengwrt are the only MSS that write oy fairly consistently, while the others write real or rial. It seems really as though Ch. was the first ME writer to use the CF form, which is not surprising, considering his connections with the court, where CF models were undoubtedly of great importance (Cp. Wild, 228). As to real < reial, there seems to have been a contraction of the same kind as in reme (realm) < reiaume. More surprising is the i in rial, which Sturmf., Angl. 8, 255, explains as the result of dissimilation.

Special cases.

A 91 floyte (to play on the flute) could not possibly come from OF fleute, which gave the ModE flute. We have rather to look to MLG vloite, which itself may represent an adaptation of the OF word. The ModE form does not appear before the 16th c.

ui.

Spelling.

For obvious reasons this diphthong came to be written in exactly the same way as oi, u being avoided before i, y. Here, too, oy is more common than oi, which, however, was regularly used before ll — A 380 boille, etc. —, where oill corresponded to a CF u/\tilde{l}^1 .

¹ That, nevertheless, ME oi and ui have to be distinguished is evident from several points of view. On the other hand, it seems doubtful if the etymological differentiation in ME was kept up in early NE to the extent suggested by Luick, Angl. 14, 301, where the contradictory state-

⁹ Ruben Nöjd

Sources:

1) ui = CF oi < o + epenthetic i

Before l mouillé CF, too, had u in a pretonic syllable, but then there was no diphthong.

C 952 coillons (cullion) > coillon < *cōleōnem (L cōleus)

E 374 dispoilen (to strip) > despoiller < despoliare

A 2961 enount (anointed) < enoint < inunctus : disjoint (failure) < disjoint < disjunctus

A 200 ~ : poynt (point) < point < punctum

A 3165 foyson (plenty) < foison < *fusionem (< L fūsio)

A 634 oynons (onions) < oinon = CF o(i)gnon < *unionem (L ūnio)

B 3859 poison < poison < pōtio, -ōnis

A 352 poynaunt (pungent) < poignant < pungens, -entis

B 449 voys (voice) < voiz < vox, vocis

: croys (cross) < croiz < crux, crucis

Special cases.

5, 518 acloyeth (to overburden): anoyeth

NED identifies accloy with OF encloyer, earlier encloër, F enclouer <*inclāvare (< clāvus).

The relation between OF encloyer and encloer is hard to establish. Was -oy due to influence of the common verbal suffix -oyer (< icāre)? The ME from might also be traced back to the doublet cloir (with -ir from the second conjugation?). Cp. V 395 rejoye (< rejoir): Troye.

D 1847, F 883 anoye: destroye

These are most surprising rimes considering the undeniable oi of anoye (: Ioie 'joy' IV, 1304). As to destroye

ments of the grammarians fail to convince the reader of any consistent relation between the ME and the NE diphthongs. The levelling of oi and ui to oi probably goes back to ME, and may have begun by Ch.'s time. That there did exist a differentiation at one time, is undeniable, as Luick shows by referring to u in bushel, cushion, etc. (p. 299), and we may add doublets like onion—oinon, cullion—cuillon.

ui 131

ME oi and ui are equally unexpected, since Folk-L *distrūgere (for destruere) gave OF üi in pretonic as well as tonic position. This $\ddot{u}i$ should have given nothing but AF $\ddot{u} > ME$ iu. In fact, the earliest ME instances of the verb have destrue. destruye, apparently with the iu expected. The difficulty is how to account for the Chaucerian forms, for which the spelling, if trustworthy, does not allow iu. If we do not take the spelling into account, we could, it is true, patch up a rime between a CF form of anoye with a regular ME iu and *destrue, but that would leave the ModE destroy with ME oi (or ui) quite as obscure as before. We have rather to start from the point of view taken for the discussion of ME ŭ derived from ü in a checked syllable. We have assumed above (p. 110) that in AF this ii must have become an ŭ-like sound. In this case the syllable was checked by an i/cons., which proved equivalent to a cons. group and brought about the u found in ME ui. Noteworthy is the AF (Moisy) spelling destroire.

This rime is therefore not accurate, oi being combined with ui, for we cannot assume that ui and oi had coalesced as early as Ch. (p. 129 Note). The said rime was evidently simply an 'eye-rime', although such rimes are quite exceptional in Ch.

E 2011 proyne (to prune, trim), has a variety of forms in ME.

Ell. allone has preyne. Ch.'s form cannot be ascertained from this single instance. We find in ME preyne, preene, proyne; from the 16th c. and in ModE prune. The relation between these various forms is obscure. Skeat (Gloss.) derives progne from OF proigner, proroigner, which comes from pro+roignier < *rotundiāre (< rotundus). In AF (Moisy) we find only progner (élaguer), which is the source expected for Ch.'s form.



PART III

PRE- AND POST-TONIC VOWELS



I. Quantity and Quality of Unstressed Vowels.

In the chapters dealing with stress in Ch.'s language (Part I: II, III, IV), it has been ascertained that the native accentuation was prevalent, probably since the date of the first French loans. It must then follow that long quantity could not exist in syllables that were more or less unstressed. Of course there were differences, then as well as now, between the quantities of the unstressed vowels in different positions. But with a view to the later development, especially the vowel-shift that must have set in not long after Ch., it is sufficient to keep apart only two degrees of quantity: long and short. — On the lengthening of an unstressed vowel in final position, see above p. 75.

Of course it is hazardous to draw any definite conclusions as to the quality of the unstressed vowels. We find, however, from rimes containing a normally unstressed vowel joined with a monosyllabic word (E 916 age: mariage, etc.) that the differentiation in quality that has later on taken place between a stressed and an unstressed vowel, did not exist or was very slight by Ch.'s time. We need only turn to the younger Ch. MSS, however, to find spellings indicating that the reduction of syllables had begun even in ME. In Ell. we find no traces of this reduction, which of course may be due simply to a careful observance of the traditional spelling. But as it seems appropriate to connect this phenomenon with the disappearance of the final -e, which accompanied the greater concentration of stress on one single syllable (Part I: Ch. II), it is natural to assume that Ch.'s language was not affected by the reduction in question.

II. Prefixes.

In this chapter I am first going to examine the prefixes, where a great deal of inconsistency is found even in the Ell. spellings. The only results that can be reached are based on statistical researches. There was, for instance, a vacillation between an-en, des-dis, etc. It is very likely that the prefix con- in some words meant $k \bar{u} n$ - the regular equivalent of the same AF prefix — in others $k \bar{o} n$, representing a spelling-pronunciation of the same kind as that referred to above (p. 100). Before n the spelling was unable to do justice to this differentiation. — As to the spelling-pron. in prefixes like de-, di-, pro-, which is quite common in ModE, nothing positive can be asserted, but following the arguments given above (p. 90), there is no reason to assume a long vowel in these prefixes.

To ascertain whether the aphetic forms found in the MSS belonged to Ch. or not, we have to fall back upon the criterion of the metre, although this is by no means infallible ¹.

The following prefixes frequently interchange in the MSS: a, an, as, em, en, es, ex.²

The aspect presented by these various forms is one of more or less arbitrary confusion. We also find aphetic doublets for a great many compounds with these prefixes. The confusion, however, began already in AF, where dialects with differently developed prefixes had intermixed, and was

¹ The same test is applicable also with regard to medial and final syllables. Thus the majority of lines point to the syllabic value of i in -ial, -ioun, -ious. It seems to me that there is no reason to doubt the syllabic value in lines where this i is not indispensible, since it often happens that the thesis consists of more than one syllable. I do not realise the necessity of synizesis (tenB § 286), for instance, in

B 99 O hateful harm! Condicion of poverte! Nor does

E 2023 This noble Ianuarie, with all his might, necessarily presuppose a reduction of the proper name to *Ianuar*, although such a form is really recorded.

 $^{^{2}}$ On confusion of prefixes in general, see Schmidt, K.: Präfixwandlungen.

only augmented by the tendencies prevailing in the native language. In AF, as well as in OE, there existed side by side, and with small or no difference in meaning, verbs without prefix and with prefix: OE $d\bar{e}lan-\bar{a}d\bar{e}lan$; AF cunter—acunter. When, then, many prefixes in some cases only had an intensifying character it was natural that the AF verbs incidentally were given a 'wrong' prefix.

Later there was a tendency to normalize the unsettled usage of these various prefixes according to CF standards, a tendency that is visible already in Ell., less in other MSS, and may possibly have been favoured by the poet himself. A few instances of these doublets will be adduced. The usual form is given first.

A 199 anoint — A 2961 enoint (anointed) < AF an-, CF enoint < inunctus

A 3147 apeiren — E 2198 empeyre (to impair) < AF a-, CF empeirer < in + pejorāre

A 1420 aspye — A 1112 espye (to spy) < AF a-, CF espier < Gic (OHG) spehôn

A 926 assure — C 143 ensure (to assure, insure) < AF en-, OF assurer < *ad-(in-)sēcūrāre (< sēcūrus)

A 496 ensample — A 568 exemple (example) < AF en-, CF essample, exemple < exemplum

des-, dis-.

These variants of spelling originally corresponded to the OF des- < L dis- and its learned doublet dis-, although by analogy dis- came to be written in ME even in words where des- had other sources $(d\bar{e} + ex$ -, $d\bar{\imath}/s)$. ME dis-is thus far more frequent than OF dis- which was only used when equivalent to L dis-. Also in AF (see Moisy) dis- was separated from des-.

In Ell. we find the following proportions. Ch.'s equivalents of OF des: dis- (< L dis) seem to occur in the ratio of 1:3.5, whereas OF des- (< $d\bar{e} + ex$, $d\bar{\imath}/s$) is rendered by des-: dis- = 3.1:1, thus still with a minority for the intrusive dis-. We also find a number of words that have des- and dis- more or less interchangeably, for which Wild, 235,

finds the ratio 34:42, the majority of dis- being due to the fact that most of the verbs contain Latin dis-1.

Examples:

des-	dis-	des-, dis-
A 789 desdeyn (disdain)	E 432 discord	B 3025 desherit (to disinherit — A 2926 dis-
A 966 desplaye (to display)	F 424 discryue (to describe)	A 3474 despeir (despair) — E 1669 dis-
A 941 despyt (spite)	B 1601 disioynt (failure)	B 2121 despende (to spend) — B 3500 dis-
C 340 destourbe (to disturb)	E 506 displese (to displease)	G 592 desport (sport) — A 137 dis-
A 1330 destroye (to destroy)	E 1474 disputisoun (argument)	I 664 despoyle (to rob, strip) — E 374 dis-
		A 1455 destrayne (to constrain) -A1816 dis-

We find that ModE has generalized dis- to a far greater extent. The victory of dis- is of course primarily due to learned spelling, but it cannot be denied that phonetical tendencies pointed to the same development. A pretonic e spontaneously weakened to i, so that we have here a collaboration of two different tendencies. Cp. mes, mis.

en-, in-.

The French conditions were fairly accurately reflected in Ch., and the Latinized *in*-, which later on became almost the regular spelling, seems only to be found in words that had *in* also in OF. Such is the case in

B 3538 endure — G 855 induracioun (hardening) < endurer, induration, to L indūrāre

E 738 enforme (to inform) — B 3059 informacioun < enformer, information, to L informare

 $^{^1}$ A confusion of di-, de- did not occur, apart from B 1414 devyne (to guess) — A 2515 divyne < devine < L $div\bar{n}$ are. The Latin influence was predominant, Ell. writing 7 di-, 2 de-. B 1592 defye — D 1928 diffye (to defy) are doublets of OF defier < dis + $f\bar{n}$ do, Latinized in ME on L $diff\bar{n}$ do.

A 3166 enquere (to inquire) — A 3163 inquisitif < enquerre, inquisitif, to L in + quærere

The same is true of entre-, inter- which have later on been unified to inter-. Ch. has still III 1368 entrechaunge (to interchange) etc.

mes-, mis-.

Here we have a conflict between native (OE) mis and the borrowed mes-(< mes < minus). As in the case of diswe find here, too, the i-form victorius, owing chiefly to the popularity of the native mis-, but perhaps also to the phonetical tendency of a pretonic e giving i. Cp. des-, dis-.

In two words, however, Ell. has still the OF mes-, namely in D 407 etc. meschaunce¹, A 493 etc. meschief, both meaning 'misfortune'. These words were evidently not felt to be compounds and were, therefore, slower in being adapted to the common mis-. This mis- was prefixed even to verbs which had no corresponding compound in OF, for example

V 1185 misacounted (miscounted) E 2410 misconceyne (to misunderstand)

A 513 miscarie (to go amiss) B 3723 misgyed (misguided)

This makes it likely that in cases of mis-corresponding to OF mes-, B 616 misaventure (misfortune) < mesaventure, I 805 misese (trouble) < mesaise, etc., we have to do with mere change of prefixes, rather than a phonetical development of mes < mis.

III. Aphæresis.

The causes of aphæresis have already been briefly set forth in connection with the confusion of prefixes 2 . It may be added, as far as the nouns with initial a are concerned,

¹ Only 3 times, mischaunce, D 1334, E 1433, F 1374 (Wild, 233). — On the stress of these words, see p. 16.

² For a detailed discussion of this question, see Slettengren.

that the mistaking this a- for the indefinite article was a contributing factor.

To determine by the metre whether Ch. had an aphetic form or not is admissible only in so far as the prefix was indispensable as a *thesis* in the line, that is, we may conclude from the requirements of the metre to the minimum of weak syllables and thus ascertain whether the prefix was necessary or not. On the other hand, we cannot argue from the redundance of a prefix that the original form was aphetic, since the metrical *thesis* could contain more than one syllable. Thus, it is evident that *escape* was the actual form in a line like

B 3925 Whan hé escáped was he can not stente, whereas scape is not proved beyond doubt in, for instance,

V 908 the knéw fal wél ther shal not scápen oon, where not, although sufficient as a thesis, does not preclude an additional syllable, although it would certainly prove an error to believe in Ch.'s exclusive use of escape, considering the large number of doublets in other such words. It has also to be borne in mind that the normal Chaucerian line had the same number of unstressed and of stressed syllables succeeding each other, and that the Ell. MS observes this rule also with regard to the interchange of aphetic and non-aphetic forms with a precision that presupposes either a highly conscientious copying or a constant attention to the rhythmical requirements on the part of the scribe.

We may therefore follow the spellings of the Ell. MS in its use of aphetic forms without running the danger of departing essentially from the poet's own language. In cases of a fairly equal distribution of such doublets we might even venture a guess as to which was the normal form by consulting lines where the word was found in hiatus. Thus one might possibly argue for the prevalence of escape from a line like

A 1270 That if I mighte escapen from prisoun, where the poet had the choice between escapen and scapen. Of course escape may belong to the scribe alone.

Aphetic forms in Ch. were mainly of the following types. — With loss of:

1) a- (of various origins):

II 3291 mende (to profit) — Usually amende F 197

C 852 pothecarie (apothecary) — Usually a- A 425

A 4365 prentis (apprentice) — Also apprentice D 303

A 2613 semble² (to assemble) — Usually assemble G 50

B 2471 venge (to revenge) — avenge I 535

Here we may place also HF 979 (in) were (doubt), if the connection with AF awer suggested by Derocguigny, 95, is tenable.

2) de/s, di/s + cons.

D 1931 spence (pantry) — dispence (expence) D 1263

A 806 spende 3 (to spend) — Also despende B 3500

D 223 spitously (spitefully) — despyt (spite) A 941

3) prosthetic e/s + cons.

A 3388 scorn

A 87 space — Seldom espace B\2219

A 2809 spirit — Only in prose espirituel I 79

B 1615 spouse (husband), F 291 spyce (spice)

V 703 spye (spy) — Also espye B 2216

F 1506 spye (to spy) — Also espye B 324

A 79 squyer (squire), D 2089 squyre

A 2995 stablissed (established)

A 572 staat (state) — Usually estaat B 973

D 1847 stomak (stomach)

A 709 storie (history, story) — C 156 historial (historical)

B 3560 stour (battle) < esto(u)r < Gic (OHG) sturm

A 545 stout (brave), A 13 straunge (strange)

C 538 streyne (to strain), A 1187 stryf (strife)

¹ Outside the CF the spellings are less trustworthy, and can be relied upon only if the metre goes to corroborate the forms in question.

² OF sembler only exceptionally occurs in this sense.

⁸ The first instance in NED is from 1175, and the OE form aspendan is only scantily recorded, so that OF origin seems preferable. — Expend does not appear before the 15th c.

As a rule the aphetic forms are in a large majority, and even to-day most of these words begin with s. The e-less forms are likely to have originated in the common hiatus after the definite article, most of the words being nouns or adjectives. There the $+e\acute{s}$ - gave thes-, dissolved into the s-.

IV. Unstressed Vowels in Medial Position.

A metrical test is not always infallible for deciding whether a syncopated word was original in Ch. or not. Here, as in the case of the aphetic forms, we can draw definite conclusions only from lines where the syllable in question was necessary as a thesis, whereas we have no right to eliminate a syllable because it was metrically superfluous. Following the argument given above (p. 140) we are, nevertheless, in a position to get fairly accurate results concerning the medial unstressed vowels.

As a rule the OF vowels were preserved unchanged also medially, and many of the deviations from CF are found already in AF. Such words were A 1604 seurtee 1 (surety), where e, although retained in spelling, was dropped in AF (Schw. § 271 A). Of the same kind were 3, 429 founes 2 (fawns) < feon < *fētonen (< fētus), 3, 661 poun 2 (pawn at chess) < peon < *pēdonen (< pēs).

In AF, too, was found i for CF ai in nouns in -ison <- $\bar{a}tione(m)$:

B 4507 comparisoun A 2372 orisoun, C 83 venisoun Likewise G 1204 alkamistre (alchemist) is indebted to AF for its -a-. — A 2501 paraments — F 269 parements

(rich hangings) had both their OF equivalents.

 $^{^1}$ The monosyllabic seur was not the result of synizesis, as was assumed by tenB \S 268. Cp. p. 143, Note 1.

² There existed in OF also faon, paon, which gave rise to the ModE forms, and thus belong to the same category as brawn (p. 122).

If we now turn to the changes that cannot be assumed to have taken place in AF, we are first concerned with the medial -e-. As a rule it is preserved, for instance in

D 1367 bryberies F 1575 remenaunt (-e- often redundant)

F 697 frankeleyn (franklin) B 1679 Iewerye (Jewry) < D 2209 frenesye (frensy) juerie

Thus A 2555 chieftayn should be traced back to OF chieftain (Godefr.) rather than to chevetain, since this form would evidently have preserved the -e- in Ch.'s language. So we can hardly assume even a partly phonetical process in the exchange of v for f, as NED does. The analogy of the related chief had no doubt been influential even in OF.

But if the preservation of -e- should clash with the stress tendencies, which favoured a stressed antepenult in polysyllabic words, the -e- disappeared. Therefore, we find 4, 236 enmite (enmity) < enemistic made trisyllabic, since the chief stress was on the initial syllable. This accounts for the syncopation in

V 802 chevalrous < chevalerous, A 45 chivalrye < chivalerie A 23 hostelrye (hostel) < ostelerie

B 1906 tourneyment (tournament) < tourneyement

B 837 kerchef (kerchief) is Skeat's emendation of Ell.'s consistent spelling coverchief (D 590, etc.), which he preserves in other instances in his edition. In A 453 the trisyllabic form is metrically necessary, and nowhere metrically impossible. The remarkable thing about this form is only that we find -ver- for vre-. This may be explained as the outcome of a series covre-> covere-> cover-, where the form covere- may originally have been simply a spelling 2,

¹ This does not imply, however, that words of four syllables like amorously, naturally should be pronounced, even in poetry, with syncopation of the second vowel. Cp. tenB. § 263. Nor have we any reason to eliminate, even metrically, i in perilous, on account of

B 1999 A perilous man of dede.

The same remark holds true of the whole process treated by tenB. as synizesis (§ 268).

² Cp. 3, 549 discure and G 696 discovere.

just as in the vb. coveren, because our would mean $\bar{u}r$ not $\bar{u}vr$, but there seems to be a great probability for a vocalic glide between v and r to make the spelling covere phonetically exact. It is true that covere is never metrically trisyllabic, but the same is true also of -sidere in considere with original -e-. If then *covere-chef was actually quadrisyllabic, elimination of one -e- must have take place (p. 143) so as to make the word trisyllabic, and then the first -e-, which helped to avoid the spelling vr, proved more indispensable than the other. Hence coverchef 1.

In other words the -e- tended to drop before a consonant group.

B 512 constable < conestable

B 2035 minstral(es)² (minstrel) < ministral, menestral

A 207 palfrey < palefrei

The same may be said about A 598 pultrye (poultry) < pouleterie, if we assume that the intermediate stage was pouletrye, where one -e- had been syncopated in conformity with the tendency referred to above.

In two cases -erer- had been simplified to -er by way of dissimilation:

A 2936 perrye (jewellery) < perrerie

4,288 emperice (empress) < empererice

Some words show a tendency to substitute -i- for -e-, in a few cases evidently due to Latin influence.

- A 241 hostiler (innkeeper) < hostelier < *hospitālārius (hospitālis)
- A 3012 ordinaunce³ (arrangement) < ordenance < MedL ordinantia (< ordo, -inis)
- F 59 vestiment (vestment) < vestimentum

¹ Cp. 3, 549 discure and G 696 discovere.

² A 2197 minstralcye had also the stress to favour syncopation.

³ Other MSS, as III 535, have -e-. — When A 3776 chimenee < chimenee, cheminee (chimney) shows the opposite process, the -e- is evidently due to dissimilation with the first i. This i was found already in French in a number of words with initial ch: A 85 chivachye (military expedition), A 45 chivalrye (knighthood).

Special cases.

B 2099 auntrous (adventurous) < aventurous occurs in the line

And for he was a knight auntrous

The usual form aventurous occurs, for instance, in B 2858, but as the form auntrous is rather common in ME we need not doubt that it is genuine here. Its occurrence in Sir Thopas may make this assumption still more founded. The short form must have been developed from aventurous with initial stress from aventure. Then medial -e- dropped before cons. group and *avnturous became auntrous. The loss of -u- is remarkable but is comparable with the syncopation of -e- mentioned above.—Cp. also A 4205 auntre (to risk).

A 1785, 4220 etc. benedicite (bless you) is interesting.

Although of Latin type, this word may have passed through AF before reaching ME. It is an interesting illustration of the strong contraction to which a long, clumsy word was exposed in popular use.

That an interjection of five syllables was exposed to reduction is not surprising. It is natural, too, that the popular pronunciation, for which long polysyllables were rather awkward, gave the initial syllable the chief stress, eliminated the three middle vowels and thus created a dissyllabic form benste, where d naturally had dropped in the group of four consonants. Benste does not occur in Ell., but is frequently recorded in other ME works. Ell. always has the full Latin form, which, however, is only once metrically necessary:

A 1785 The god of love A benedicite (: he).

In other instances the word fills up a dis-, tri-, or quadrisyllabic metrical measure, although this does not necessarily imply that Ch. himself knew as many variants, or even that in reading his own poetry he would have

¹ D 2170 (This lord began to looke and seide benedicitee — Cp. Skeat's ed.), B 4583, D 1584 (Cp. Skeat), resp.

¹⁰ Ruben Nöjd.

given the word four different pronunciations to obtain a fixed number of syllables in the line. His actual form is hard to ascertain with any great amount of certainty. Statistically the trisyllabic form has the greater probability, judging by its metrical use 1. The Latin benedicite became popularly benedicite > bendiste > bendiste > bendiste.

B 4324 boteler (butler) < boteler points to a change of suffixes: el(er) for eil(er), rather than a monophthongization of medial -ei-. In any case, we find the monophthong also in OF (Godefr., Suppl.). There can be no question of analogy with bottle, since this word, even if the connection with butler was in the people's mind — which is unlikely — appeared later, at least in the literature (NED).

A 4041 croun (crown), the equivalent of AF coroun(e), CF corone < L corona

To assume French origin for ME eroun presupposes an unparalleled type of syncopation². In view of the absence of -o- in the corresponding words of other Germanic languages, one might be inclined to coördinate the ME form with its relatives in other Germanic languages (MLG krône, krûne, etc.)³.

On the other hand, it is undeniable that the OF forms entered into competition with the earlier, syncopated form (Orrm has *cruness*). In Ell. we find, except *croun(e)*, also *corone*, *coroune*, in

¹ That this trisyllabic form could not be read bencite, as was suggested by Child, Observ. § 96 — a theory accepted by tenB. (§ 263), and Skeat (Gloss.) — has been pointed out by Flügel, Prolegomena to a Chaucer Dict., Angl. 22, 419.

² Also B 431 krone (crone): allone, everichone should rather be connected with the MDu kronie (old sheep) than with Picard carone (carrion), for which derivation the vowel, too, raises difficulties.

⁸ I find the same doubts as to the French origin of crown expressed by Behrens, Franz. St. 5: 2, 20.

G 280 And made his angel hem the corones bringe A 2290 A coroune of a grene ook cerial

It is impossible, however, to decide from the metre whether these forms reflect a dissyllabic or monosyllabic form in the poet's language. The vowel in the longer (French) form should be \bar{o} (p. 99), and its absence in rimes justifies the conclusion that the current form was *croun*. Coroune would then represent a contamination of both, probably a merely orthographic variant.

B 4060 Was cleped faire damoysel(e) Pertelote

should no doubt, as Wild, 228, justly remarks, be read damsel, but not necessarily for metrical reasons, since a dissyllabic thesis is not quite unique. But it is very reasonable that a title, mostly followed by a proper name, should be reduced also in natural speech to a more convenient form.

A 752 marshal < marechal may owe its syncopation to the same tendency, since any other reason could hardly be imagined for the loss of -e- in this word.

5, 339 merlion (merlin) shows a peculiar transposition of the -il- of AF merilon = CF esmerillon. A connection with merle or lion seems to be out of the question.

F 1374 Upon the pavement, god yeve hem mischaunce might be read, with some MSS pament, which would give a metrically ideal line, but, since the trisyllabic form is proved to have been the normal by other lines (B 85, 1867) I do not hesitate to retain the Ell. form. Pament is later than the general syncopation of -e-, and shows regular loss of v before m.

HF 1218 shalmyes (shawms) should be read chalemies, as some MSS have it. The -e- is metrically necessary.

B 1762 wardrobe (privy) < warderobe dropped the -e-, whether consistently or not remains doubtful in view of the absence of further instances in Ch. In any case, the noun ward may have been identified with the first element of the word.

V. Suffixes.

As a rule the suffixes were regularly transmitted in their OF shape, as we have found from the numerous instances of a riming suffix with metrical stress. It has already been pointed out that in the normal speech these suffixes must have had the same kind of weak stress as the native suffixes.

No phonetical changes within ME are to be traced in the suffixes during the period reaching up to Ch., and the only deviations that can be ascertained for his language are simply due to a change of suffixes. Of course a great many of these changes are likely to have taken place already in AF, although we do not find all of them instanced in the AF literature.

We have already found that -eis must have replaced -ais in words like paleys (p. 119). Other instances of such a change, whether originating in AF or ME, are:

HF 1643 pelet² (pellet, stone cannon-ball) = pelote (< L pila)
D 344 perree (jewellery)³ = perrerie, to pierre < petra
: he

C 391 pulpet² (pulpit) < pulpit < pulpitum : yset (pa. p. of OE settan)

The frequency of such rimes has made it necessary to deal with these suffixes in connection with the stressed syllables: -able (p. 55), -al (pp. 56, 68), -arie (p. 67), -ee (p. 75), -er (p. 76), -el p. 82), -et (p. 84), -ie, -ible (p. 89), -orie (p. 101), -ous (p. 107) and others.

² With -et from the suffix -et < -ettus. — D 2282 pulpit.

³ Not 'a pear-tree', as Cromie has it. — The normal form is found in A 2936 perrye (: spycerye).

II 611 skarmish¹ (skirmish) = escarmouche (< Ital <) Gic *skerm-

In this connection a word should be said about Ch.'s form of ModE velvet. I have found it only once:

F 644 And covered it with veluëttes blewe

So Skeat reproduces Ell.'s ueluettes, and the trisyllabic form seems metrically necessary. We have, therefore, to assume that Ch. had u where ModE has v. In NED we find the ModE form instanced for the first time in 1350.

Neither Ch.'s, nor the modern form, can be derived from OF velute, and NED traces it back to MedL veluetum, velvetum, giving as the only OF form velut(e). There existed, however, also OF veluote, giving ModF velvote, and it would be quite as possible to connect veluet with OF veluote in the same way as pellet has been connected with OF pelote, that is, with a change of suffixes.

VI. Apocopation.

It is a well-known characteristic of Ch.'s versification that he never combined -ie with $\bar{\imath}$ in rime. The conclusion seems obvious: Ch. still pronounced the final -e in native as well as in borrowed words. But can this rule be generalized for all cases? Of course -e was invariably pronounced in cases like A 1095 crye (to cry): eye (= $\bar{\imath}$ e) and undoubtedly also in verbs of the type B 4535 multiplye: dye, where even in natural speech \acute{y} e had at least as much stress as the initial syllable. Less plausible is the preservation of -e in polysyllabic nouns or adjectives: melodye, tirannie, or, to take other types, ignoraunce, gentillesse, pilgrimage, or any word where the chief stress fell on an other syllable than that preceding the -e. The only place where the -e of polysyllables consistently counts as a syllable is rime. Here the artificial stress on the ending gave the poet an oppor-

¹ The -ish form — it it is Ch.'s cannot be proved — is from the vb. skirmish < eskirmiss, inf. -ir < Gic *skirman.

tunity to follow the French versification with its variation of rimes with and without -e. Ch.'s consistent observance of this rule was therefore due to his familiarity with the French art of poetry, which he tried to follow as closely as his native language allowed, sometimes against the tendencies of the vernacular.

It has been pointed out already that metre does not always give an infallible clue as to the syllabic value of unstressed syllables (p. 140). A word of the type véngeaunce was by necessity metrically dissyllabic, allowance being made of course for the possibility of a thesis containing two syllables, and it is not admissible to assume the disappearance of -e merely on metrical grounds. On the other hand, we find only a limited number of lines where the -e received metrically strong stress, as in

D 1156 Ne fólwe his géntil aúncestrè, that déed is (: dedis 'deeds')

B 3943 And Phébus with his tówaillè so cléne

B 3523 With his they máde alliaunce by bónde

To read them with 'direct attack', i. e. with the first word of the line stressed, would hardly bring about a more natural diction. The fact is that these lines are only so many instances of poetical licence due to the same French influence that was at work in the rime-words just referred to. The preservation of final -e in polysyllables can therefore not be ascertained for Ch. by any metrical evidence of that kind.

Nevertheless, there are strong reasons for assuming that -e had really disappeared in other words than those with a preceding full-stressed syllable. Our case is evidently similar to the question of the inflectional -e in polysyllables. This -e was still preserved in words of the monosyllabic type, but had disappeared elsewhere and was mostly omitted in the spelling too. Metrically irrelevant are combinations like D 1115 the gentile dedes or D 1263 nigardes with a metrically superfluous -e. But D 1937 auditours: sours (source) does not allow the insertion of -e. Such a rime could

be suspected as a French nonce-rime (cp. C 291 advocatz (-ās): allas), if we did not find great numbers of such spellings elsewhere: D 1429 extórcious, D 1641 sómnours, G 900 métals¹, etc. Against these forms rimes like B 3558 emperoures: floures (flowers) are analogical exceptions, taking the -e of the monosyllables to give a correct rime. Such instances rather justify Frieshammer's (xiv) assertion that 'auch in der Formgebung wird die Sprache des Verses eine "gehobene" sein'. This is, however, the exception rather than the rule, and few poets come up to the natural raciness of Ch.'s verse. It was only in rime that he was forced to use archaic or foreign forms.

The disappearance of -e in polysyllables in Ch.'s language is also chronologically reasonable. The general loss of -e took place for the London dialect in all probability not later than the middle of the 15th c., and it is phonetically obvious that -e should drop earlier in a polysyllable, where it was more weak-stressed, than in a monosyllable. Cp. $\bar{a}ge - advántăge$, chaunce — ignoraunce, distresse — gentilesse, vice — office, etc. with -e dropped in the polysyllables, although retained in the orthography. The preservation of -e in spelling was generally due to French influence, but it should also be borne in mind that endings like -age, -aunce required the -e to indicate the value of the preceding consonant.

According to Schwan-Behrens, § 265 A, the loss of -e in AN took place earlier than in other dialects, beginning as early as the 12th c. It seems most likely that there, too, it disappeared earlier in polysyllables than in other words, but such an assumption is not necessary as far as ME is concerned, since the process in question is sufficiently accounted for by ME conditions. — On the other hand, it is surprising to find a small number of monosyllabic words having lost their original -e, as may be ascertained from rimes. These exceptions are so few, however, that there can be no question here of a general tendency towards the dropping of -e. In some cases doublets had existed in OF:

¹ See, further, Kittredge, Observations, 104.

B 4069 accord < acord(e), D 2049 record 1 (: lord) < record(e) D 1938 sours (: auditours) < sors, source

For queynte (quaint), which Skeat (Gloss.) gives without -e, I have not been able to find a single instance to prove the monosyllabic use in Ch. In 3, 531 queynte (: aqueynte 'to acquaint'), for instance, the -e is indispensable.

No -e was found in

B 1945 best 'beast' (: Est 'East') < beste (sir Thopas!)

C 303 fors 'force' (: cors 'body') < force

B 677 prees 'crowd' (: pees 'peace') < presse

B 45 text < texte (In many ME works we find texte as well. See NED.)

The number of these irregular forms is very small, and the loss of -e was hardly the result of a phonetical process. An explanation may be looked for in the following fact. The AF dialect showed from early times a considerable confusion of genders, due partly perhaps to English influence², and, as -e was considered a typical feminine ending, it was only natural that there should result a partial loss of the original -e. The same confusion gave rise to the occasional addition of an unetymological -e in a couple of words: A 3044 due: eschue (to eschew), III 254 mene (means): clene (clean) B 3244 pere (peer, equal): dere (dear)³.

In A 1055 aungel we find a transposition of the OF -le through the analogy of the common native -el, or perhaps we have here too a case of final -e disappearing in polysyllables, the OF form being angele, where -e- may

¹ Hence it seems doubtful if -e is justifiable in Skeat's ed.: 3, 933 (in his) worde: recorde. — By analogy OF concorde could then become ME concord, although the initial stress might itself be responsible for the loss of -e. Only III 506 points to concord. Cp. E 1129, etc. concord.

² Burghardt, Über den Einfluss des Engl. auf das Anglonorm., 1 ff.

³ These words are also very few, and the instances given by Kitt-redge for Troilus (pp. 87, 121) contain a great number of cases where -e is either inflectional or represents a direct borrowing of an OF expression, as in IV 1192 fortune adverse (: werse 'worse'). — Note also B 4149 terciane (i. e. fever; F fievre, fem.): bane (death), LGW 1962 foreyne (i. e. chambre, fem.): tweyne (twain).

simply indicate that g was a spirant, but where a glide vowel was also apt to be inserted.

The possibility of this methathesis of -le > -el is extended by tenB., § 87, also to maister. But here OE origin is undeniable, not only because of the -er for -re, but above all on account of the diphthong, which would be abnormal in a French loan. The plural maistres may quite as well represent a syncopated plural of the native word (OE māgister).

It has been said that in rime Ch. usually retained the etymological -e under all conditions. In some cases, however, he seems to monopolize the -e-less forms even in rime. Nearly all of these words were popular and therefore less exposed to Frenchification.

B 1927 river (: deer, n. pl. 'deer') < riviere

B 1944 forest (: Est 'East') < foreste

B 1751 honest (: lest 'lists, pleases') < honeste

B 491 tempest (: Est 'East') < tempeste

F 218 magyk (: lyk 'like') < magique

B 4028 Phisik (: sik 'sick') < physique. But D 187 praktike : like, inf.

D 2008 person 'parson' (: destruccion) Cp. II 701 persone (person) : done (to do)

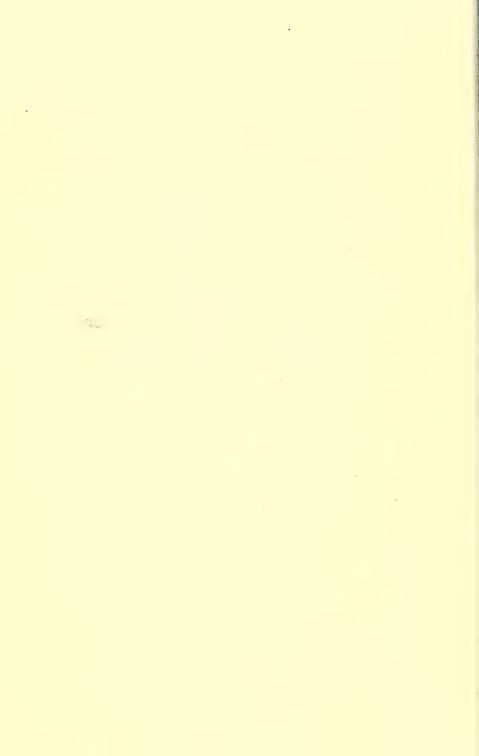
Invariably -e had disappeared after a stressed ℓ in the combination - $ee < -\bar{a}ta$. Native words too had undergone the same process. The ee was preserved to express the long \bar{e} in final position (p. 75). Cp., for instance, E 1077 prively (secretly).

A 1345 contree: see (to see), B 3465: she

In G 743 *Iupartye* 'jeopardy' (: folye 'folly') the irrational ·e may be explained as analogical from the -e of partye.



PART/IV VOCALISM OF PROPER NAMES



Proper names.

We are here concerned almost exclusively with polysyllables, which of course as a rule had a short stressed vowel. But it is interesting to see how the proper names were used in rime with an artificially stressed final syllable.

The phonology of proper names is naturally harder to ascertain, and one is often reduced to mere conjectures as to what was Ch.'s own form. Strange corruptions of the original — mostly Greek or Latin — names and their adaptability to a given rime-word are frequent stumbling blocks to the investigator. Furthermore, we do not always have any certain criteria for proving that a particular name had passed through the AF crucible before its appearance in ME. In some cases doublets show that the poet felt at liberty to choose between the classical form and its French equivalent. So we find in some (11) rimes $Palam\bar{\varrho}n$, in others (18) Palamoun (\bar{u}), of which the latter form is unmistakably French, while $Palam\bar{\varrho}n$ represents the artificial lengthening of $-\bar{\varrho}n$ in a rime-syllable.

That is, in fact, one of the most striking features of the riming proper names. Any name ending in a short, unstressed vowel/single consonant could have, and usually had, the vowel lengthened in rime. It is exactly the same procedure that we have found taking place for normally unstressed endings, which in rime had their short vowel/short cons. lengthened (p. 4). In the case of e, o, the result of the lengthening was always \bar{e} , $\bar{\varrho}$. Examples:

A 3272, 3285 Nicholas: cas: allās¹, D 495 Ierusalem²: beem (beam)

¹ Perhaps also in V 977 Pallas: wās, etc. since was could rime with -ās and -ās. Of course the normal pronunciation was always -ās in the proper names.

Note HF 591 Iupiter: boteler (butler), where the frequency of the suffix -er may have influenced the proper name — of course only as a nonce-rime.

B 2088 Ypotys: prys (price)

B 3335 Nabugadonosor (Nebuchadnezzar: tresǫr (treasure)

D 890 Arthour (Arthur): clamour (ū)

This process of lengthening, although primarily originating in French models like B 1191 Denys (St. Denis): wys, adj., III 382 Agamemnoun: toun (town), could be extended also to names that had never passed through French, as we have seen in the case of $-\bar{\varrho}n$, for which French mediation gave a ME $-\bar{u}n$. But not all names had their final vowel/cons. lengthened. Especially noteworthy is a/cons., which, in fact, was lengthened only when the consonant was s, thus agreeing with the general development of a/cons. (cp. 68). We are therefore not surprised to find

B 290 Hanybal: wăl (wall) E 1732 Marcian: măn

G 305 Urban: măn LGW 592 Cesar: wăr (aware)

Of these the names in -al, -ar may or may not have been French importations, while those in -an could not possibly be from OF, since then we should have expected to find some spellings -aun, representing the length derived from the French nasal. — Cp. B 1998 Olifaunt: geaunt: haunt, A 448 Gaunt (Ghent): haunt, sb., where the vowel was \bar{a}^1 .

Likewise the proper names in -us show vacillation, although with a strong inclination to - $\check{u}s$. We have found (p. 107) that the suffix -ous (<- $\check{o}sus$) was also changeable as to the quantity of u, but with a great majority of - $\check{u}s$ -rimes, pointing to length as the normal metrical quantity. The case is rather opposite for the proper names in -us. I have found in the CF 12 rimes of this -us with the suffix -us (< $\check{o}sus$) — usually spelt -ous — 1 rime (D 1139) with native $\check{u}s$, and 20 rimes with native $\check{u}s$. Examples:

B 3765 Antiochus: venymus (venimous)

F 1499 Aurelius: amorus

D 1140 Kaukasous (Caucasus): hous (ū)

¹ But 5, 286 Athalante: wante (to want) shows no French influence.

F 965 Aurelius: thŭs (< OE pus) C 621 Demetrius: ŭs (< OE ūs)

G 967 Ihesus : ~

The short vowel is indisputable for these proper names. Whether French influence had been at work or not cannot be determined, since also OF $\ddot{u}s$ was bound to give ME $\ddot{u}s$, if the French pronunciation of L us was $\ddot{u}s^1$. The fact that L names in -us were familiar even in OE makes it more reasonable, however, to assume that - $\ddot{u}s$ was the native representative. We have also to count with the ME school-pronunciation, which naturally was based on French principles.

Even a final vowel received metrical length in rime, short quality being as impossible there as in the alphabetical pronunciation of the vowels. The tendency of lengthening final unstressed vowels has already been dealt with (p. 75). — As far as e, o were concerned they became \bar{e} , $\bar{\varrho}$ (p. 48). — Examples:

A 1077 Emelya²: A (ā) interj.

F 207 Pegasee 3: flee (e) (to flee)

I 72 Appollo: gō : fordō, II 8 Cleo: dō

G 1448 Plato: to, G 1460: tho (then)

The vacillation between $\bar{\varrho}$ and $\bar{\varrho}$ in final position has been referred to above (p. 98 Note 1). It is only natural that a proper name should allow of still greater liberties for the riming vowel.

There is very little to be added concerning the rimevowel in other positions. In a checked syllable it was naturally always short, as in HF 117 Leonard(e)⁴: hard(e), in an

¹ Mall, Computus, 52, gives plus (ü): Romulus, etc.

³ Apparently ā was sounded also in 3, 1071 Minerva: Polixena. — The names in -a could not have been taken over through French.

³ This form of *Pegasus* must contain the L ending -ēus, although the actual L form was *Pēgasēius*.

⁴ Before st we find a short vowel — thus precluding French mediation — in D 671 Theofraste (Theophrastus): faste, adv., B 75 Alceste (Alcestis): beste (best). — E 442 Grisild[e]: child[e], D 1980 Inde: fynde (to find) seem to have had i substituted for i in conformity with the native system i/ld, nd.

open syllable it was naturally long, as in B 1545 Iame (James): $d\bar{a}me$. — We find vacillation between \bar{e} and \bar{e} in A 980 Crete: $yb\bar{e}$ te (beaten), LGW 1895: $gr\bar{e}$ te 'great' pl. — D 733 Crete: $sw\bar{e}$ te (sweet). This might possibly be interpreted as a vacillation between the \bar{e} of the French form and the \bar{e} of the native spelling-pronunciation. Likewise, in G 62 Eve (Eve): $bil\bar{e}$ ve (belief), E 1330: $pr\bar{e}$ ve (to prove), one might think of French influence for the former rime, whereas the latter may have been the continuation of OE Eva (\bar{e}) . The fact is, however, that OE $gel\bar{e}$ afa, $bel\bar{e}$ fand did not preserve their traditional \bar{e} , \bar{e} in ME, but owing to analogy, the \bar{e} had been generalized, so the first rime does not prove \bar{e} .

Vacillation is also found for the quantity of e in Lucrece (< Lucretia), which rimes 3, 1081: Grēce (Greece), but 7, 82: -něsse (< OE). Cp. also D 1168, HF 972 Boece (< Boethius): noblěsse, LGW 425 holyněsse. We find here the same vacillation as has been ascertained for the groups ese, ěsse in general (p. 82).

Short vowel is evident in D 1604 Marie (Mary): tărie (to tarry). See p. 67. The spelling-pron. found in ModE may have existed even in ME. Cp. Marry and Maryland! — Short is i also in G 85 Cecilie¹: lilie 'lily' (< OE lilie).

The vocalic length due to metrical stress in rime was of course merely artificial. In one case ModE points back to a normal length even for a normally unstressed vowel. I refer to the ending -es of Greek proper names corresponding to cases like F 1439 Alcebiades: chees (= chose < OE cēas). The modern voiced [z], however, shows that the final syllable was once comparatively unstressed, so that the normal ME vowel was presumably $-\check{e}s > -ez$, later on lengthened to $-\bar{e}z > \bar{\imath}z$. The change of final -es > -ez was confined to unstressed syllables. Cp. -es as an inflectional ending.

Noteworthy is also the ModE length in final position of

¹ Ch. had also G 196 Cecile: gīle (guile).

e, o, as in Thisbe (\bar{i}), Apollo (\bar{o}^n). This spelling-pronunciation was also the reflexion of a normally long vowel in ME as has been made likely for final unstressed vowels also in other cases (p. 75).

The diphthongs as a rule had the same sources here as in the vocabulary in general. — A few examples are adduced here:

ai.

HF 196 Itaylle (Italy): saylle (to sail) HF 1117 Spayne (Spain): payne (pain) $\left. \right\} ai < a + epenthetic i$

A 1031 Alayn: agayn (again), ai < a/nasal?

A 410 Maudeleyne : Spayne (Spain) E = 1754 Eleyne (Helen) : streyne (to strain) $ai < ei < \bar{e}/nasal$

au.

HF 1796 Isawde 2: lawde (praise), au < al/cons. (?)

iu.

D 1356 Huwe (Hugh) : retenue A 53 Pruce³ : Ruce (Prussia : Russia) $iu < \ddot{u}$

 $^{^{1}}$ Also A 3483 $Benedight: {\rm wight}, {\rm \ with \ } i\chi t {\rm \ for \ } ikt {\rm \ by \ way \ of \ sound-substitution}.$

² Elsewhere also Isoude, Isolt, Iseult. — As etymology Kalbow, W. (Die German. personennamen des afrz. heldenepos, p. 36) suggests Gic *Ishild. The au is curious, but the form is not unique here. This proper name is found in more than 30 variations (See Cent. D). — D 1357 Rauf (Ralph) had no doubt \bar{a} (ModE \bar{e}^i), au being monophthongized before v.

³ ModE has the Latinized forms, appearing in the 17th c. ModF has Russie, but Prusse. Ch. knew also F 10 Russye: Tartarye.

¹¹ Ruben Nojd.

oi.

D 1564 Loy (St Eligius): boy, A 119: coy, oi < CF oi < ei < e + epenthetic i.

uį.

A 466 Coloigne (Cologne) : Boloigne

ui < o + epenthetic i.

Index.

(Referring to the pages.)

a- 136
aas (ace) 58
abaundone 62, 64
abbey 27, 114
abhominable 11
able 55
abounde 104
abridge 41, 43
abroche 45
absence, -nt 20
accord 38, 152
achat 59
acounte 37, 104
adamant 26
accloye 130
acoy 128
acquit 94
adversane 11, 67
adverse 41, 152
adversitee 11
affray 116
Agamemnoun 158
-age 42
age 42, 54
aggregge 43
air 115
Alayn 161
Alcebiades 160
Alceste 159
aley 27, 115
allas 58
allege 41, 43
altar 121

amble 69
amiable 31, 58
amorous 29
anoint 129
anoye 128
Antiochus 158
apaye 114
appareile 117
appeere 75
appehyt 86
approach 41, 45
aqueyntance 61
arace 54
argoille 128
-arie 67
armure 124
array 116
arrest 73
Arthour 158
assaille 115
assure 124
astoned 112
aswage 42
Athalante 158
attach 41
attain 76, 115, 117
auncestres 62
aungel 152
auntre 145
auntrous 145
Aurelius 158, 159
auter 121
availle 115
avance 61

CONTRACTION II
avow 102
avyse 87
awarde 37, 65
bacoun 27, 58
balm 122
baner 27
baptise 86
bareyne 115
bataille 115
bande 121
bawme (balm) 122
beautee 123
beest (beast) 73, 152
begyle 35
benedicite 145
Benedight 161
benefice 86
Beneit 161
benigne 87
berne (barn) 40
bewail 115
bible 34, 89
bisege 43
biwaille 115
blame 4, 54
blewe (blue) 126
boch 45
Boece 160
Boloigne 162
boost (boast) 97

avante 61 avarice 88 aventaille 116

born 40	chastyse 87	consistorie 101
borne (burnish) 40, 110	cheere 76	constable 144
botch 45	cherish 86	constant 101
boteler 109, 146	chevalrous 143	construe 18
bountee 106	chevise 87	consume 22
bourde 39, 105	chieftain 143	contract 101
bowge (bag) 45	chimeneye 114, 144	contrarie 11, 21, 67
braunche 61	chose 95	contree 75, 153
brawn 122	Christ 90	contrition 20
bulte (to bolt) 110	ciprees 71	converte 80
burdon 108	citee 94	cony 109
burnish 40	clarree 27	coost (coast) 96
butler 109, 146	clause 122	corage 29
	clayme 116	coral 68
caas 59	cliket 4, 94	correccioun 9
cacche 42	Cleo 159	cors 100
cage 42, 54	cloke 96	cosin 109
cambric 70	cloos 95	cote (coat) 96
Cambridge 70	cloyster 128	couche 41, 104
capitain 26	coillons 129	counseil 106, 117
capoun 27, 58	coitu 22	countenance 106
carayne (carrion) 115	cokewold 35	countesse 81
cardinales 56	cokkow 103	countrefete 71, 106
cardynacle 56	coler (collar) 27	course 35, 105
carie 67	colerik 26	court 35, 105
cas 58	collegge 43	courtesy 35
catel 27, 82	Coloigne 162	coveityse 109
Caucasus 158	colour 109	cover 144
cause 122	comaunde 62	coward 106
cave 53	comedie 85	coy 129
caytives (wretches) 87	comfort 100, 108	crased 57
Cecilie 160	companye 118	creatour 79
celle 80	comparisoun 26, 29, 67,	Crete 160
cerial 68	142	crosselet 84
certain 116		
Cesar 158	compleyne 118	crouche 45, 46 croun 146
	comprehende 37, 80	
cesse (to cease) 70	comyn (cummin) 87, 109	croupe 103
chaar 69	conceit 21	cruel 82
chace 54	conceive 21	cuckold 35
chalenge 80	conclude 18, 127	cuckoo 103
chambre 69	concord 101, 152	curvain 108
champioun 65	conduit 48, 108	custume 108
chance 61, 63	confessioun 20	cynamome 99
chapel 6, 27	confounde 37, 104	
chapeleyne 67	conjure 18	daliance 61
chaste 60	conseil 10	dame 57

damoysel 147	divinistre 93	ese 72, 119
dampne 69	doctour 100	evangil 87
dance 63	dortour 102	evangelist 90
date 54	doseyn 109	Eve 160
daunt 64	dotage 30	exametron 97
deceit 21, 120	double 105	execute 18
declare 23, 54	doute 103	expelle 81
deduyt 91	dowaire 115	expoun(d)e 104
dees, deis (dais) 117	dower 106	expresse 81
delay 114	dresse 81	eyse 119
delit 86	ducat 112	
demande 36	duchesse 46	face 54
demeyne (dominion) 118	due 124, 152	facounde 37
Demetrius 159	dys (dice) 91	fade 55
Denys 158		faille 115
depardieux 123	ease 72, 119	fame 54
depeint 118	ebraic 58	famous 28, 58
des- 137	effectueel 82	famyne 88
descende 37	egle 34, 71	faucon 121
desdein 116	egre 34, 71	favour 27
deserve 80	-el 82	fawn 142
desolat 59	element 85	fee 76
despise 86	Eleyne 161	feith 117
desport 100	embrace 55	fel 82
destourbe 105	Emelya 159	fellow 75
dette 80	emperice 87, 144	felonye 26, 29, 85
destroye 130	en- 138	feste (feast) 73
devoure 102	encombre 108	fetisly (neatly) 88
devys(e) 87, 88	encresse (to increase) 70,	fey (faith) 117
dextrer 77	72	fiers 80
diademe 78	endite 87	final 30, 90
		flambes 69
diete 78	endure 124	flour 102
digest(ion) 90	enemy 143	
digne 87	engregge (to burden) 43	floyte (flute) 129
diluge 46	enoynt 129	folye 27, 101
diner 94	enquere 11, 71	fool 98
diocise 87	ensamples 69	forest 153
dis- 137	entende 37	forneys 108, 120
discerne 39	ententyf 11	fors 100, 152
discover 144	entree 20	fortune 7, 124, 152
dishonour 11	envye 18, 20, 21	foudre 34, 104, 105
disjoint 129	envyous 21	foun (fawn) 142
dispone 99	errant 61	foyson 129
distant 20	escape 55	franck 61
distresse 81	eschaunge 61	frankeleyn 116, 143
diverse 41	eschu(e) 22, 125	frape 57

fraude 122 fruit 126 frve 87 fumeterre 71 funeral 33 furnace 108 futur 33 fyn 87 Fynysterre 71

gable 56 galianes 57 galingale 57 gallant 63 galoche 45 galoun 29 Gaunt (Ghent) 158 gaunt 64 geaunt 31, 79 geeste (feat) 73 general 68 gentilesse 81, 149, 151 gerlond 36, 80 giant 31, 79 gise 87 glorie 27, 32, 101

glose 96 gourde 39 governe 39 gowne 104 grace 54 grante 61, 63 graunge 61 grayn 116 greesse 72 greeve (grieve) 76 Grisilde 159 grudge 41, 46

habit 27, 67 haire 115 Hanybal 158 hard 37 haste 60 hauberk 122 haunt 64

guise 87

hautevn 122 Hebraic 58 Helen 161 heraud 122 heritage 85 heron 74 heronsewes 122 hidous 94 hoche-pot 45 honest 27, 153 honestee 26 honour 6, 7, 102 hoost 97 hostel 82 hostelrve 143 hostiler 144 hotch-potch 45

houre 102 howpe 106 huge 46 humble 110 humilitee 33

Huwe 161 (h)ypocrite 6, 88

impossible 89 impoudent 22 impudence, -nt 22

ignoraunce 149, 151

in- 138 iniquitee 75 insolence, -nt 22 instrument 94 intresse 81 ire 93 Isawde 161 isle 87

Itaylle 161

iade 57 jalousye 29, 67, 87

Jame(s) 160 jaunt 64 Jerusalem 157 Jesus 90, 159 Jew 124, 125

journee 108, 115

joye 128 jug(g)e 46, 124

juparti 91, 153 Jupiter 157 jurdanes 57 just 110 juste, vb. 112

justise 87 juwise 88

Kaukasus 158 kerchief 143 krone 97, 146

labour 27, 58, 102

large 66 las 59

la(n)terne 39, 65 launde 62

laure 122 lavour 27, 58 lechour 27, 44 lege (liege) 43

legende 27, 37, 48, 85

legioun 31 Leonard 159 leopard 38, 85 leoun 31, 79 lessoun 29 libel 30, 90

licence 30, 48, 90

licorys 88 licour 94 liege 43, 44 lodge 41, 45 logik 27 lord 38 Loy 162 lucre 35, 126 Lucrece 160

maat 59 madame 67 magik 27, 92, 153

lure 127

maim 116 natureel 32, 82 paunche 61 maintene 76 natvf 30 pavement 147 malice 6, 88 navve 88 peere 152 manace 67 peerle 39 necessitee 26 maner 27, 76 Nicholas 157 pees 72 mansuete 78 noble 34 pelet 148 marchant 65 nombre 108 penible 89 mariage 33 noveltee 101 peple 34, 87 Marie 67, 160 number 108 perce (pierce) 80 marie (to marry) 32 nvce 88 perilous 102 markysesse 81 perree 148 marshal 65, 147 obeve 118 persone 99, 153 mateere 76 oblige 32, 44 persoun (parson) 80, 104 memorie 101 obstacle 56 perturb 105 mene (means) 73, 152 odious 32, 97 phisik 92, 153 odour 28 mercury 111 philosophre 94, 100 office 86, 101 mercy 88 pietee 31 merit 27 oille 128 pity 75 merlion 147 oister 128 place 55 mes- 139 Olifaunt 158 plat 69 meschief 10, 21, 76 onion 129 Plato 159 message 29, 85 ordinaunce 144 plese 72 mesurable 6, 56 orie 101 pleyn (plain) 116 mesure 28, 31 orisoun 29, 101 plevne (to complain) 115 metal 27 orlogge 45 plit 92 meve (move) 78 ouche 45 poete 78 mew 125 ounce 104 poor 98 mevnee 121 -ous 107 possibilitee 9, 75 mis- 139 possible 9 outrage 42, 48, 107 pouche 45, 103 mitayn 116 outraye (to outrage) 118 moneye 117 poudre 34, 104, 105 pous (pulse) 105 mortreux 123 pace 55 mot (mote, signal) 96 pacience 32 pray (prey) 117 mountain 106 preche 44, 73 page 42, 55 pale 55 precious 6, 74, 107 mountance 106 preef (proof) 4, 77 multiplye 110, 149 Palamon 157 muscle 112 paleys 67, 120 preeve 76, 78 musik 33 Pallas 157 prees 71, 152 muwe 124 pament 147 Prefixes: 10 ff., 136 mynstrales 56, 144 parfit 10, 65 presence, -nt 20, 85 presse 81 myracle 56 part 38 partrich 44 preye (pray) 118 prevse (praise) 118 Nabugadonosor 158 parvys 88 nacioun 32, 58 prisoun 4, 6, 30 pas 59 privee 94 natal 30 passe 66

patent 27, 67

nature 28, 32, 33, 58

procede 78

requere 76

profre 100 request 20, 73 serie 27, 85 prophesve 26 rescous 20 serve 39 prophete 78 resigne 88 servise 88 resort 100 sesoun 8 prow 103 prowesse 8 resoun 74 shalmyes 148 resport 20 siege 41, 43 proyne 131 Pruce 161 restravne 117 skarmish 149 prudence, -nt 20 retourne 40 socoure 103 prune 131 reule 125 socours 105 pulpet 84, 148 revel 20 sojourne 40 pultrye 144 revers 20 solas 60 punish 112 revne (rein) 120 somnour 108 purveye 117 riche 44 soore (soar) 95 pyke 92 riot 31 sort 100 river 77, 94, 153 pykerel 73 sotil (subtle) 109 roche (rock) 45 soun 104 quaille 116 roost (roast) 97 sours 48, 105 quarele 71 rote 96 soveravn 116 quiete 78 rouncy (nag) 106 sowple 34, 105 quite, vb. 94 route 103 space 55 royal 128 Spayne 161 rubriche 44 rage 42 special 32, 68 rancour 65 Ruce 161 specially 32 rasour 27, 58 rude 124 spere (sphere) 79 raunson 62 rule 125 spicerye 93 reason 74 rumour 33 square 55 rebel 20, 81 Russie 161 squyre 93 receit 20, 120 stable 34, 55 sable 56 recevve 117 stat 59 record 38 sarge 65 statue 32 recours 105 satin 27 stature 32 Saturne 41 refuge 46 statut 32 regals 30 save 55 stew 125 regard 20 saveour 58 stoor 95 registre 93 savour 27, 58 stout 104 reherce 41, 80 scarn 40 studye 33, 110 relesse (release) 70, 72 scars(etee) 65 sturdy 109 releve (relieve) 76 school 90 stuwe 125 relyk 20, 27, 85 scorn 40 styve (stew) 93 remedie 85 scoleye 118 subget 110 reme (realm) 73 scourge 108 substance 111 renably 85 subtle 109, 111 see (seat) 77 renegat 59 seel (seal) 73 succeede 79 renovele 71 sege (siege) 43 sue 125 repeal 81 seint 116 Suffixes: 6, 20, 148

senatour 26, 29

sugre 34, 126

supple 34, 105 suppose 95 surgerye 111 surname 111 suspecioun 74 suwe 125 swerd (sword) 38 tabard 27, 67 table 6, 56 tabour 27 tacche (defect) 42 taille 116 targe 66 tarie 67 taverner 77 tecche = tacche 43 tempeste 73, 153 terciane 57, 152 tete (teat) 71 text 152 textuel 83 theatre 75 Theofraste 159 tigre 34 torment 100 touche 45, 103 tour (tower) 103 touret 109 tourne 40 tourneyement 143

towayle 106

traytour 121

trays (traces) 121

trayse (betray) 121

treacle 56 treat(y) 72, 74, 75 trecherye 85 tregedye 85 tregetour (juggler) 29,85 tremour 28 treson 74, 121 tresoor 95 trete(e) 72, 74, 75 triacle 56 tributary 94 trone 99 trouble 34, 105 truwe (truce) 126 trye (exquisite) 93 tyraunt 30, 61, 90

Urban 158
-urie 111
urne 41
usage 33
usure 33

vache 42

valeye 115
value 32, 76
vanitee 67
vapour 28, 58
variaunt 32, 58
varye 67
vayn 116
veel (veal) 73
velvet 149
vengeaunce 150

venimous 29

venvm 27, 85 vessel 27 vestiment 144 vesture 124 veyl 117 veyne (vein) 117 vicaire 115 vice 88 vicious 107 victorie 94, 101 viker (vicar) 115 vileinve 94 violence 31 viscounte 37, 104 vitaille 116 vitriole 48, 96 voys 130 voyde 128 vyne 88 wage 41 wardrobe 148 warde 65 warice (to cure) 88 warve (to curse) 67. waste 60 wayte 121 werre (war) 81 werreye 118 weyve (waive) 117 wiket 4, 94

ypocrite 6, 88 Ypotys 158 yvory 88

word 38









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